

# The Iron Age

A Review of the Hardware, Iron and Metal Trades.

Published every Thursday Morning by DAVID WILLIAMS, No. 83 Reade Street, New York. Entered at the Post Office, New York, as Second-Class Matter.

Vol. XXXII: No. 10.

New York, Thursday, September 6, 1883.

\$4.50 a Year, Including Postage.  
Single Copies, Ten Cents.

## Steam Heating for Machine Shops.

There are a number of shops requiring an improvement over the present method of steam heating, and the number where it is intended to put in steam-heating apparatus is so great that no apology is necessary for giving at great length a description of one of the most complete pieces of steam heating which has recently been put up. It was the last piece of work designed by the late Robert Briggs, and is an example of the latest and best practice. The work was specially designed for the Yale & Towne Mfg. Co., at Stamford, Conn. In a rough way the works may be described as forming a hollow square, with boiler-house, engine-room and some other buildings occupying the central

ceilings and from 1 to 5 feet away from the walls. The theory has been that the motion of the belts, pulleys and rapidly-running shafts sets up a decided circulation of air, and thus the hot air which rises is distributed throughout the rooms. It has been found that there is a decided advantage from having pipes overhead, because they are removed from under the benches, are in plain sight and are not liable to become receptacles for dust, waste and the rubbish usually thrown under or behind the benches. It has been urged as an objection that overhead pipes, if they once begin to leak, are the cause of great annoyance, dropping the water on the work and benches. This, we think, is a decided advantage in favor of the overhead pipes. A break beneath the bench

dinary way by coils around the sides of the room, near the floor. The thermometer outside stood at 30° during the greater part of the day when the experiment was made, and the wind was blowing with considerable violence. The thermometers were placed at the floor level and 6 feet above it. In the crane shop the temperature was, 6 feet from floor, 70°; at floor, 60°. Packing-room, 6 feet from floor, 69°; at floor, 65°. Drawing-room, 6 feet from floor, 72°; at floor, 72°. Wishing to know how great the temperature would be in the top of these rooms, we had a thermometer carried within a few feet of the ceiling and left for a sufficient time. In the packing-room, where there was no machinery, the thermometer stood at 81°, and in the crane shop at 102°. It was a

the warm air at once arises from the source of heat to the ceiling, is forced outward toward the walls, and there, by gradual cooling, finds its way downward toward the floor. When steam coils are placed along the walls the hot air then rises at once close to the walls, expends no small amount of its heat in warming them, flows along the ceiling, and is finally forced downward toward the floor at the center of the room. General heating and warming can thus only take place until the walls have acquired a considerably higher temperature than is probably necessary. When, however, we lift the pipes near the ceiling and take them away from the walls the hot air is forced upward by the cold, spreads in both directions, and as a constant supply comes up through the

is so complete that almost any desired combination of exhaust and live steam can be used at will, in order to suit the requirements of the rooms or the weather. Each coil is so connected that it can be, independently of others, connected with either the live or exhaust system of circulation, and thus the quantity of heat obtained is under the most perfect control. In general the distribution is effected by carrying one well-clothed steam-pipe into each building, and then, by means of a rising main, supplying the different floors. In one or two cases it has been necessary to cross doors and go under or over passageways. In the coils the drip is in the direction of the flow of the steam in all cases.

The complex character of the system

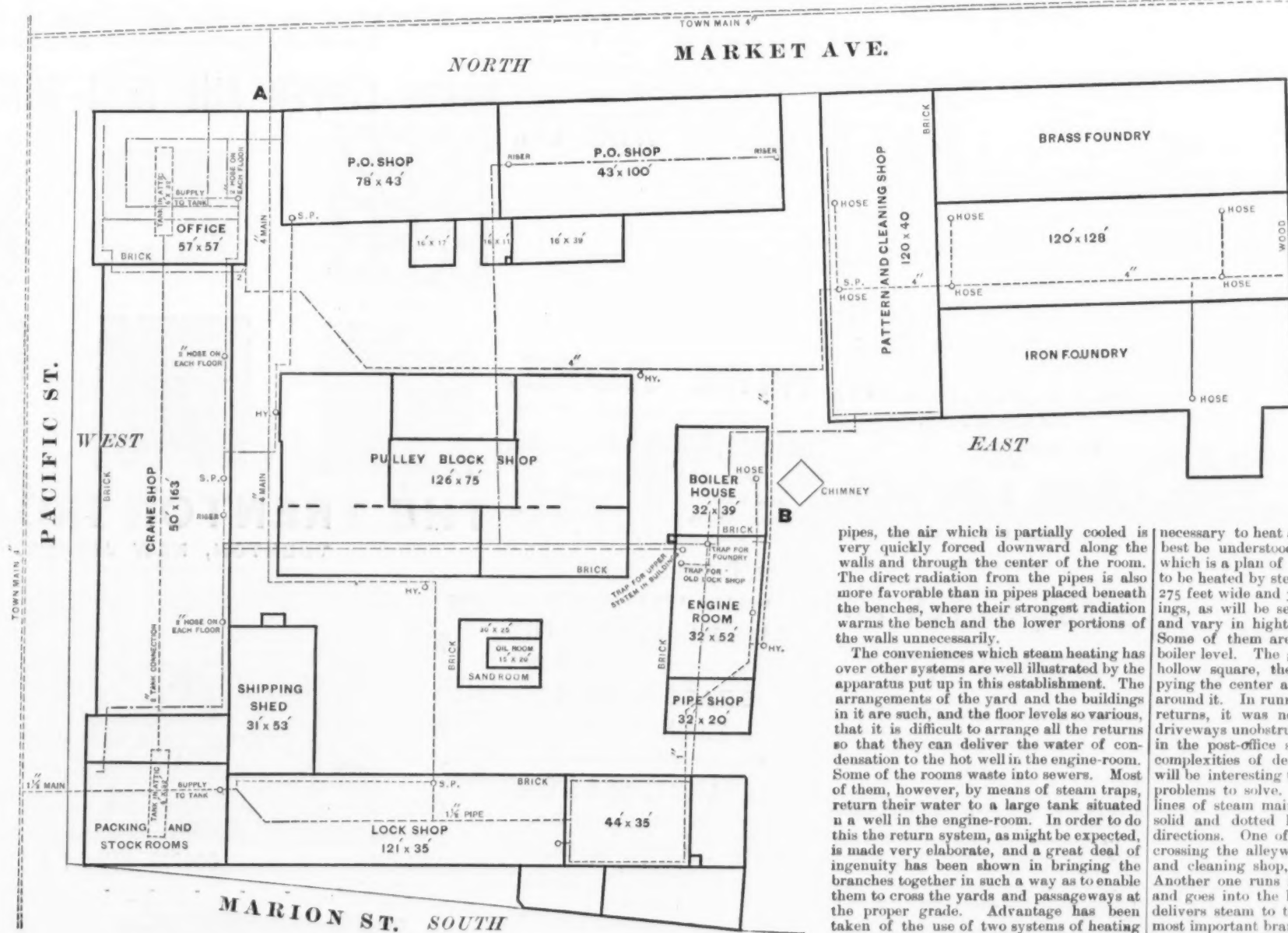


Fig. 1.—Plan of the Yale & Towne Mfg. Co.'s Works, Stamford, Conn.

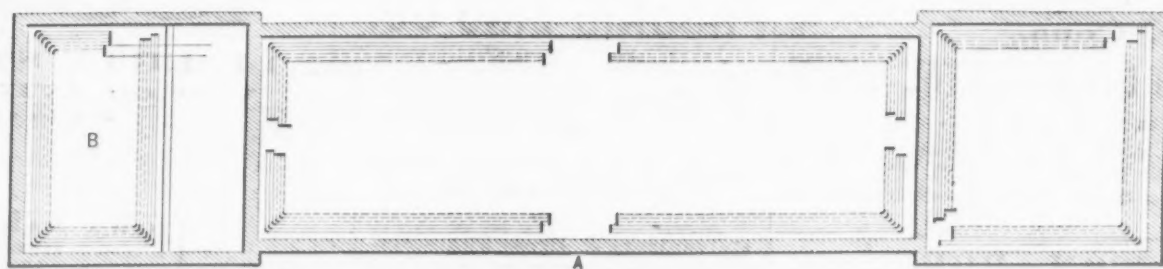


Fig. 2.—Plan of Piping, First Floor, West Front of Building.

## STEAM HEATING FOR MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS.

portion of the court. The outside buildings are not continuous, a driveway at one corner separating one of the sides from the end, and a gap being left on a portion of the fourth side. This arrangement made it necessary to carry the steam by pipes radiating from a center in four different directions. Some of the buildings had steam pipes already in place, and no attempt was made to alter these, but merely to provide suitable connections. Many new buildings, however, were in process of erection at the time the specifications were made, and in these the pipes were disposed to the best advantage. The first idea was to heat entirely by live steam, but a little consideration showed that exhaust steam could also be used most successfully, and the final result was a combined system of heating, and in the rooms where exhaust steam is employed there is combined in the same room by the same apparatus the use of live steam heating also, the live and exhaust steam systems dividing about equally the heating surface between them. The temperature which it was desired to maintain was from 60° to 70° in the coldest weather. The heating surface of the combined system of half live and half exhaust steam-pipes was arranged in the ratio of 1 square foot to 150 cubic feet of space. Judicious allowance, however, was made for the exposure of walls and windows, and window surface in relation to the walls. In some of the rooms the windows are numerous and lofty, while in others they are small and at considerably greater intervals. This, of course, would make a difference in the ratios of the different rooms. As most of our readers know, great success has attended the overhead system of pipes in the Eastern mills, factories and machine shops—that is, the pipes have been arranged in horizontal coils at from 2 to 4 feet from the

is neglected indefinitely, nobody seeming to give it attention until the dripping of water and blowing off of steam become so great as to interfere with the working of the apparatus or to create a general disturbance. Overhead, any leak which may take place must of necessity be attended to at once, and on this account the overhead position may be considered highly advantageous.

At the Yale & Towne Co.'s works there are several rooms with no machinery in them which are heated by overhead pipes. The question at once arose whether these rooms were perfectly warm, and if so, how a heating system applied in this way could work at all. For the purpose of comparison, we had thermometers placed in the crane shop, a high room with machinery and having overhead pipes; in the packing-room, where there is no machinery, but a lofty room, heated in the same way, and also in the drawing-room, which was heated in the or-

curious fact, for which we could find no ready means of accounting, that 2 feet up from the floor the thermometer stood at 68°, while it rose to 69° when laid on the floor itself. The difference in temperature in this room between the level of the workman's head and his feet was only 1°. In the packing-room it was 4°, but in this case we traced the result to an open door creating a draft across the room toward a window. This probably reduced the temperature 2° or 3° more than in other parts of the room, and it was in this draft that the thermometer happened to be hung. The experiment was sufficient to establish the fact that in these rooms the temperature is sensibly the same at the level of a person's head and also on the floor, and the question at once arises, How is it that a room heated from the top can be so nearly equal in temperature in all portions? The answer appears to be simple enough. No matter how a room is heated,

the warming for the whole building, cross connections are so arranged that live steam can be cut off everywhere and the exhaust steam turned into both live and exhaust steam coils, furnishing the heat for the whole room or all the rooms. In the morning, when it is necessary to heat up with great rapidity, especially in cold weather and before the engine is started, the connections are so arranged at the boiler-house that the watchman can turn on the live steam into the whole system of pipes indiscriminately, and bring up the heat rapidly; then, when the engine commences working, the live steam is cut off and the exhaust turned through the exhaust system. The principle on which the exhaust and live steam coils are arranged is very nicely shown in the little sketch, Fig. 2, from the specification, where the dotted lines represent the exhaust and the plain lines the live steam coils. In fact, the arrangement for cross connections

necessary to heat all the establishment can best be understood by reference to Fig. 1 which is a plan of the works. The portion to be heated by steam is, roughly speaking, 275 feet wide and 300 feet long. The buildings, as will be seen, are of various sizes, and vary in height from one to four stories. Some of them are above and some below boiler level. The general plan is that of a hollow square, the pulley-block shop occupying the center and having driveways all around it. In running the lines of mains and returns, it was necessary to leave these driveways unobstructed, and this, especially in the post-office shop, introduced several complexities of designing which we think will be interesting to those who have similar problems to solve. From the boiler-house lines of steam mains run, as shown by the solid and dotted lines, in three different directions. One of these starts north, and, crossing the alleyway, leads to the pattern and cleaning shop, which is 120 x 40 feet. Another one runs in the opposite direction and goes into the lock shop, where a riser delivers steam to the different floors. The most important branch, however, runs westward, going through the pulley-block shop to the crane shop. This one is branched and supplies the post-office shop. The packing-room, crane shop and office buildings, as well as the post-office shop, have several floors to be heated, and, as can be readily seen, the exhaust system would not by any means supply a sufficient quantity of steam, the engine only averaging from 150 to 160 horse-power in everyday work. Most of the buildings shown in our map return their water of condensation to the boiler. The old lock shop, the foundry, the post-office shop and the crane shop all have their drip returned to the boiler through traps. The post-office shop has its trap just at its outer wall. Most of the other traps are located in the engine-room close by the boiler. There are a few radiators in one of the buildings situated at some distance from the boiler, and in a location where the return would be expensive and difficult, which drip directly through a trap into the sewer. There are three lines of live-steam mains. The first of these, going to the lock shop, is a 2½-inch pipe. The second one is a 4-inch pipe, going toward the crane shop. From this a 2-inch branch is carried north to the post-office shop. Beyond this it is 3½ inches. The vertical main or riser in the crane shop is 4 inches, and is reduced to 3 inches at the top story. The horizontal branches in this building are 2 inches. The general dimensions of supply or return connections were obtained by the following rule: For each 100 square feet of heating surface in the coils or radiators the cross-sectional area became for the exhaust steam .24 square inch. For live steam the area was .12, adding the same constant as before. For water of condensation for each 100 square feet of heating surface in coils or radiators the area was .06, adding the constant .25. This area was obtained and the size of pipe determined by comparing the results with manufacturers' dimensions of wrought-iron pipes, the nearest convenient size being used, taking, however, always a size larger rather



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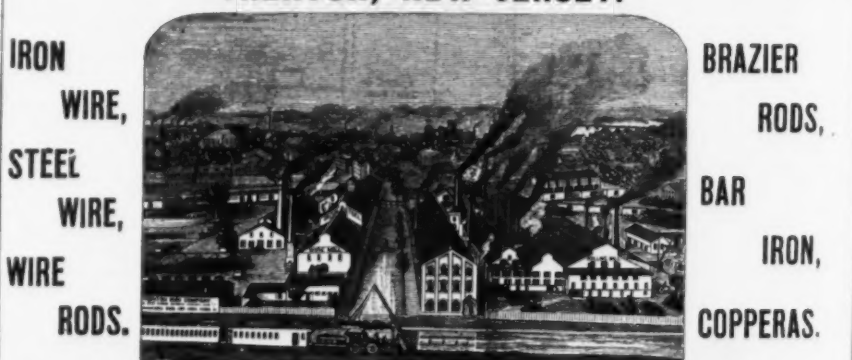
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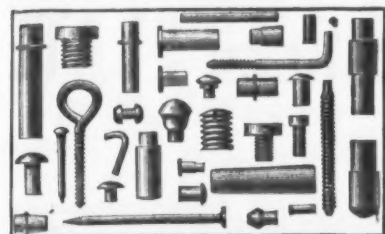
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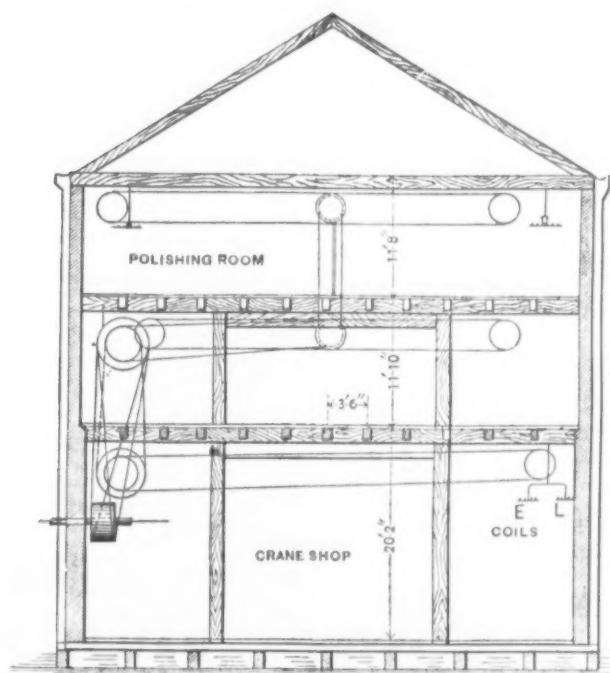
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than a size smaller when there was a discrep-  
ancy between the computed area and the  
tables of sizes. Drips were put in wherever  
water was likely to accumulate, as at the  
bottoms of all the vertical mains and in other  
similar positions, and all the mains, whether  
for exhaust or live steam or flow from return  
mains, have been given a fall of at least  
half an inch in 10 feet, and the flow of the

tive to the walls and ceilings. The live-  
steam coil, consisting of four pipes, is placed  
next the wall, and inside of that the  
exhaust coils are hung. The method of  
doing this is simply to carry the pipes on  
castings by means of gas-pipe connections.  
Both coils can be kept at the same level;  
they balance each other and the adjustment  
of fall is made very perfect. When, however,



Steam Heating for Machine Shops.—Fig. 3.—Sectional Elevation, West Front of Building.

condensed water and the steam was made in  
the same direction.

Fig. 2 shows the general arrangement of  
the west front building, with the location  
of the coils and the relation of the live and  
exhaust steam circulation. This building,  
or set of buildings, has single live and ex-  
haust steam mains, which enter at the point  
A. Risers here deliver the steam to each  
of the three floors. The method of gen-  
eral distribution is similar in principle on

only six pipes are used in the coils, a single  
casting is employed for the purpose. This  
is supported from the floor beams in precisely  
the same way as before. Where, however,  
it is necessary to carry only four or five  
pipes, the device shown in Fig. 6 has been  
used. Sometimes this has been found con-  
venient for a five-pipe coil, and in other  
cases been used for four-pipe coils. It can  
also be used for coils of two pipes each,  
one for the exhaust and one for the live

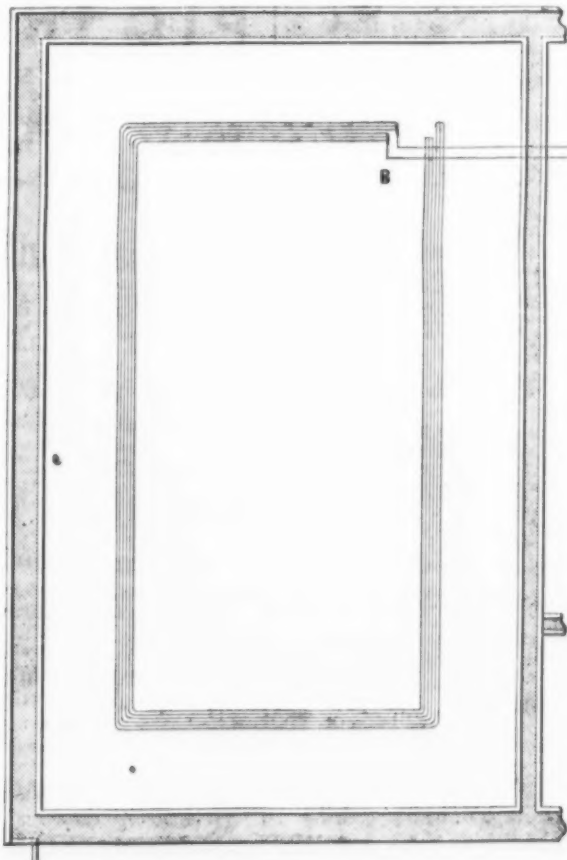


Fig. 4.—Stock and Packing Room Pipes.

each one. The dotted lines may be taken  
to represent the exhaust-steam service, and  
the solid lines the live steam. The width  
of the coils, of course, is greatly exagger-  
ated, in order to make the method of ar-  
rangement more distinct. The plan em-  
braces four L-shaped exhaust coils and four  
L-shaped live-steam coils in each corner of  
the room or floor. In the two corner build-  
ings the system is somewhat different. As

steam, as has been found convenient in some  
situations. In this case the suspension has  
been by a rod and bolt, the adjustment being  
obtained by screwing up the nuts underneath.  
In the office building the system is decid-  
edly mixed, some of the floors being heated  
by radiators, others being heated by stacks  
of pipes along the walls near the floor, and  
we believe one of the top rooms has hori-  
zontal coils near the ceiling. In this build-

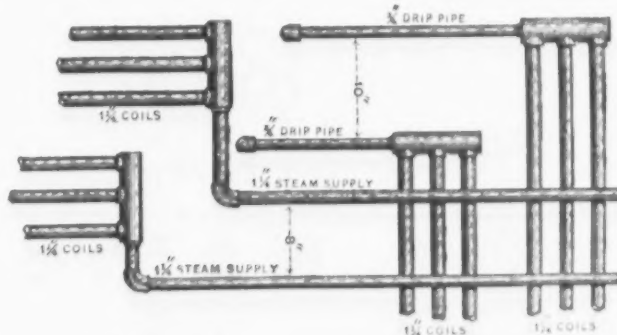


Fig. 5.—Plan of Connection at B, Stock and Packing Rooms, See Fig. 4.

at first intended, there were two L-shaped  
coils for exhaust and two for live steam in  
each of these buildings, but this plan has  
been modified, and in the packing-room B  
the system has been very greatly modified,  
and a single coil encircling the room has  
been introduced. In the crane shop the sys-  
tem has been carried out very completely,  
the coils being precisely as shown. Fig. 3,  
representing a section through the center of  
this shop, shows how they are located rela-

ing the system of cross connections has been  
carried out completely. The different coils  
taking steam at A on each floor have a com-  
plete system of stop-valves, so that live  
steam can be put into any exhaust coil, and  
in this way, when the exhaust and live  
steam are insufficient, they can be reinforced  
by turning live steam into the exhaust coils,  
or both coils can be used for the exhaust  
steam whenever it is desirable. In doing  
this it is particularly necessary to make the



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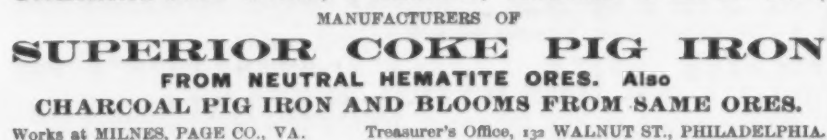
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"Cumberland" Nails and Wrought Iron Pipe,  
43 North Water Street and 44 North Delaware Avenue, PHILADELPHIA.

**J. TATNALL LEA & CO.,**  
Successors to CABEEN & CO.,  
**IRON COMMISSION MERCHANTS,**  
No. 400 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.  
BESSEMER, MILL AND FOUNDRY PIG IRON, SKELP IRON, MUCK AND SCRAP BARS NATIVE  
AND FOREIGN ORES. A. A. HUTCHINSON & BRO.'S CONNELLSVILLE COKE.

**BOOTH, CARRETT & BLAIR,**  
ANALYTICAL AND CONSULTING CHEMISTS,  
919 and 921 Chant St. (10th St. above Chestnut St.), Philadelphia, Pa.  
Established in 1836.

Analyses of Ores, Waters, Metals and Alloys of all kinds. A special department for the  
**ANALYSIS OF IRON AND STEEL,**  
fitted with all the apparatus and appliances for the rapid and accurate analysis of Iron, Steel, Iron  
Ores, Slags, Limestones, Coals, Clays, Fire Sands, &c. Agents for sampling ores in New York and  
Baltimore. Price lists on application.

## JUSTICE COX, JR., & CO.,

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CHICKIES, CONEWAGO, MONTGOMERY AND  
SHENANDOAH  
**Foundry & Forge Pig Iron.**  
CARBON ROLLING MILL CO., Limited,  
Best Quality Muck Bar.  
**CATASAUQUA MFG. CO.'S**  
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Shenandoah (Va.) Best Charcoal Blooms.  
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**BLOOMS, BESSEMER PIG,**  
**Spiegeleisen Iron Ores**  
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Careful attention given to Special Dimension Chains and those requiring extra Strength  
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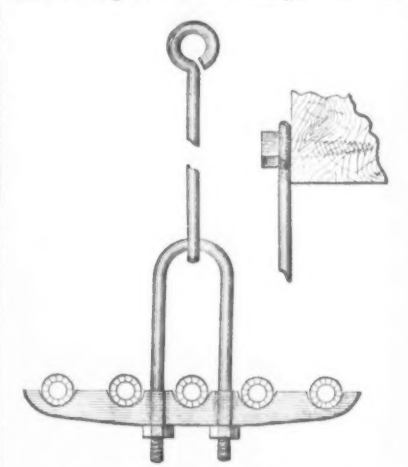
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connections in such a way that expansion  
and contraction shall have no disturbing  
effect on the joints. In this connection the  
reader must not overlook the advantages  
which the form of the coils and the method  
of hanging give for allowing the most perfect  
freedom for expansion and contraction, both  
individually and collectively, of the pipes  
and the coils. The whole system is ex-  
ceedingly elastic in every direction, and  
though some of the coils are of unusual  
length, yet no difficulty has been experienced  
from this cause. In this building the work  
has been comparatively simple and straight  
away, differing, excepting the packing-room,  
very little from the general scheme appli-  
cable throughout the buildings. In the



Steam Heating for Machine Shops.—Fig. 6.—  
Hanger Supports.

packing-room, which is very large, lofty and  
unobstructed, the plan, of course, was easily  
modified. The position of the coils in most  
of the rooms in this building was such that  
the arrangement for reaching the various  
valves could be easily made without changing  
in any way the arrangement.  
In other portions of this work, as, for  
example, the post-office shop on the north  
side, the case was somewhat different, and  
the system of piping adopted is an exceed-  
ingly good illustration of the ease with which  
the steam-heating system can be modified to  
suit almost any conditions that may arise.  
This we shall describe at length in a future  
issue.  
(To be continued.)

## Screw Threads in Cast Iron.

The following article on screw threads in  
cast iron is from the pen of Mr. P. Barnes.  
It contains some points that are worth think-  
ing of:  
Many rolling-mill men have long refused,  
as a fixed rule of practice, to employ for any  
purpose a screw-thread cut or tapped in  
cast iron, unless the screw can be very  
large, comparatively, in diameter, and can  
hence be made with a coarse pitch of thread.  
This determination is unquestionably a wise  
one, and is in the direction of the practice  
of many judicious men in other lines of  
machine-building, although the requirements  
of rolling-mill service are in many respects  
more severe than almost any other. Even  
if all the obvious exceptions to this rule or  
custom be allowed, there are still reasons  
enough, and forcible ones, too, why the cus-  
tom should be more nearly universal in ma-  
chine work than it now is, in the details  
concerning which all builders would agree.  
It is probable that no one thing has done  
more to warrant builders in clinging to the  
use of tap-bolts and all similar screw-  
thread details in cast iron than the grow-  
ing use of the Sellers thread with the flat  
top and bottom, although even this advance  
in screw-cutting is far from being univer-  
sally adopted, especially among the smaller  
shops in which, in many localities, so large  
a proportion of the whole product of gen-  
eral machinery is made. Even with the  
older sharp-angle threads it has been, and  
still is, an unwritten law that for tapping  
into cast iron the hole shall be drilled de-  
cidedly larger than is really due to the diam-  
eter at the base or root of the thread, so  
that, in effect, the more modern result, so  
desirable and important, has been obtained—  
that is, the thread with a flat top in the hole  
when tapped.

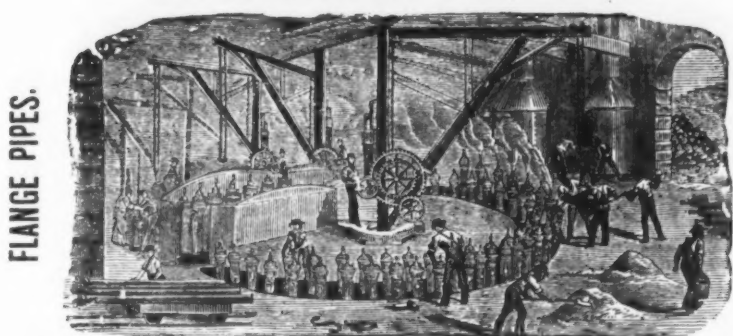
One reason why it is needful to use even  
a flatter-topped thread in a hole tapped in  
cast iron than would be required in a wrought-  
iron nut, is the tendency of the tap, if not  
skillfully handled and kept properly oiled, to  
drag the thread out with it if the attempt is  
made to cut a thread of full depth—one that  
shall fill the threads of the tap full, clear to  
the bottom of each space between them. If  
the hole be drilled so as to correspond to the  
diameter of the root of a very flat-bottomed  
thread, this dragging or tearing tendency is  
almost wholly relieved, and a perfect and  
strong thread remains. The most trouble-  
some cases in which holes tapped with cast  
iron are likely to be used are plainly those in  
which the tap bolts must frequently be  
backed out, as in taking off the bonnet of a  
steam chest or of a globe valve, or the cap of a  
pillow-block, and the number of these is  
simply legion in which the bolts have been  
twisted off, or the thread dragged out of the  
cast-iron body or flange, simply because  
some one in the first instance failed either to  
make the bolt big enough to give the needful  
body of iron in the thread, or had, perhaps,  
fitted the bolt too loosely, or had suffered the  
threads to become slightly crossed in putting  
the parts together.

In many cases the simple widening of  
flanges, adding thus a very few cents' worth  
of iron to the cost of the valve or other piece  
of work, would have removed the slightest  
pretext for the use of tap-bolts, or standing  
bolts of any kind, the wider parts or flanges  
permitting the holes to be drilled directly  
through both the body of the work and the  
bonnet, or similar part, which is to be bolted  
on. So many cases can be found in which  
the addition of 20 cents' worth of iron would  
have added in a very important degree to  
the strength and certainty of the durability  
of the whole, that it is hard to believe that  
the makers of the work in question could  
have ever given any time at all to the true



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BURLINGTON, N. J.



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Warranted Equal to any Produced.

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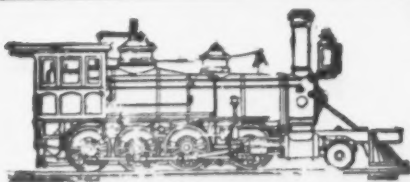
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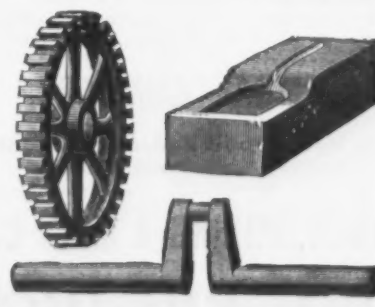
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in fact a combination of tools—viz., tree and post-hole digger, transplanting, spade, pick and tamping bar. The ease with which the spades are separated (to use one or the other) and for filling in the ground, the

nick for dislodging stones or other obstruction, or the tamper for packing the ground around the post) is a point of great merit. The blades are made of cast steel, and the irons of the best malleable, sufficiently strong to resist all strains. With this digger a man can easily dig a hole thirty inches deep, nine inches diameter, in hard ground, within three minutes. It will work in all soils. No fence-builder, nurseryman, farmer or railroad company can afford to be without it.



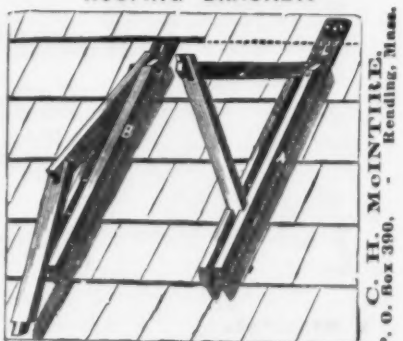
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BOILER FEED PUMPS,  
Garden Engines, &c.  
Also, Carriage Makers' Tools,  
Blacksmiths' Drills, Butchers'  
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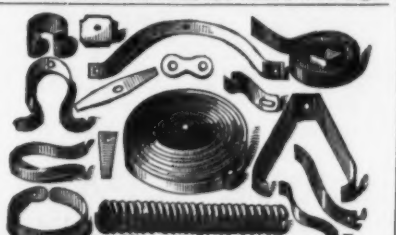
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TINNED WIRE  
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Bird Cages.

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saleable in market.  
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Clock Springs and Small Springs  
of every description, from best Cast Steel.  
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**Schenectady Molding Sand Co.**

ALBANY AND SCHENECTADY  
MOLDING SAND  
delivered on cars or boats at low rates. All grades  
guaranteed. All orders will receive prompt atten-  
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G. S. VEEDER, Pres.; J. G. GREENE, Sec. and Treas.

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SELF-STRAINING,  
BEST AND CHEAPEST.



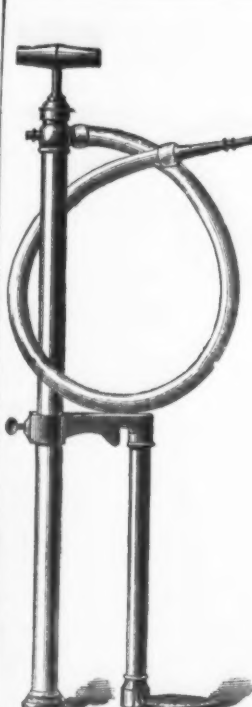
**CLOTHES WRINGERS.**  
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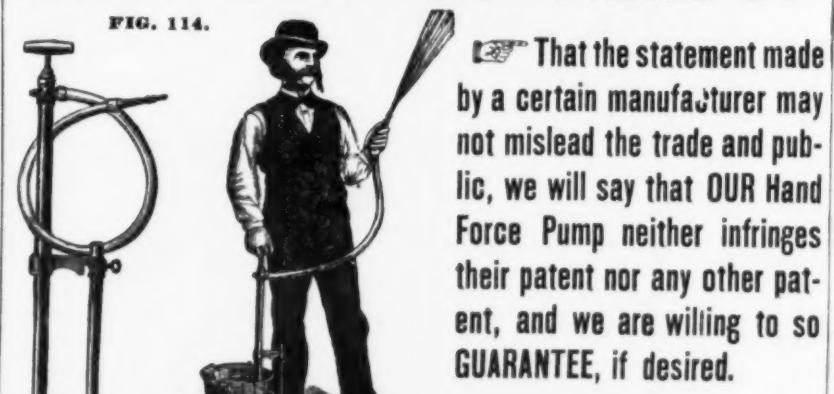


The above cuts (Fig. 114) represent our **PATENT AQUAPULT**, so valuable a Hand Force Pump that certain competitors have made bold to infringe on same, and even to resort to the crime of plagiarism in using our cuts and trade-mark name of article to decoy customers away from our manufacture and invention; and we caution the trade and customers against purchasing this article when not made by ourselves, as we intend to protect our rights under our patent.

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study of their own goods in such particulars. It is obviously a cheaper thing to drill the holes directly through the two flanges, when clamped securely together for the purpose, than to drill each one part way through with one drill, and then to handle the whole a second time to finish the holes with another and smaller drill to suit the tap required. So, too, it is a less costly thing to buy or make a plain bolt and nut, each properly suited to the other, than to fit a tap-bolt and to screw it into place, square and true to the bearing surface upon which the head must rest. The common bolt and nut have this important advantage, too—that a much greater looseness of fit may properly be tolerated in them, one upon the other, than could be allowed in the use of a bolt tapped with the cast-iron face. Indeed, the looseness which in most cases ought to be allowed between the bolt and nut would be fatal to even a short life of a safely-fitted joint of this character.

Some men object to joints made with flanges and with through bolts for the reason that they are supposed to be clumsy and ill-proportioned, but the gospel of clumsiness may well be preached to some of the current builders of machinery supposed to be "constructed for heavy, continuous service." The shocks of rolling-mill work, and of some other similar lines of duty to which machinery must be applied, are not in the slightest degree respectful of persons, or of any known thing except the most massive outlines and dimensions in the parts exposed, and, indeed, these very qualities are sometimes dealt with as utter trifles when wrecking emergencies and stresses are developed in the machinery.

### Early Railroad in Kentucky.

A correspondent of the Quincy (Ill.) *Whig* writes as follows of the first railroad in Kentucky, later part of the Louisville, Cincinnati and Lexington road, now owned by the Louisville and Nashville:

The recent railway exposition at Chicago recalls to the mind of the writer that he witnessed when a boy the construction of one of the first railroads in the world. It was in the state of Kentucky, from Lexington to Frankfort, and was completed in 1838 or 1839. You may be sure it was quite a primitive affair compared with railroads of the present day. I shall attempt, to the best of my recollection, to give a description of it. A railroad had been built in England, and had excited the wonder of the world, on account of its great speed and capacity for hauling over its track numbers of cars at a time, containing tons of freight. The wonder and excitement produced by this new and novel mode of conveyance penetrated into the interior of Old Kentucky to Lexington, the home of the great and renowned Henry Clay, the acknowledged leader of the old Whig party, and an agent was sent over to England to see and examine carefully this new and powerful device for moving the freights of the world on land, with a view of using the knowledge obtained in constructing a similar road in our "Old Kentucky home." The agent in due time returned, and described with enthusiasm all he had seen and experienced of the new wonder. The people of Lexington were not only wealthy and intelligent, but enterprising, and ambitious to surpass both Louisville and Cincinnati. Located as Lexington is, almost in the center of the State, with no navigable stream near enough to be of any advantage—Frankfort being about the nearest available point to the Kentucky River—her citizens at once determined to build a railroad to Frankfort. I do not remember much about the initiatory steps that were taken for right of way, &c., but I recall the fact of the grading of the road, and the deep interest manifested by everybody in its construction. The agent who had visited England found the rails laid upon ties, about the same as now, but our Lexington engineers thought that wood was too temporary and destructible, so they adopted limestone sills 10, 15 and 18 feet long, laid down longitudinally, with ties under them crosswise every 4 or 5 feet. The rails were flat iron bars 2½ inches wide, fastened with bolts to the stone sills by drilling holes and filling in around the bolts with molten sulphur or melted lead. Only passenger cars were used at first, and they were drawn by two horses. It took about three hours to make the run down to Frankfort, 28 miles.

The cars were two stories high and very curious-looking affairs; the lower story was inclosed and set apart for the use of ladies and children, while the upper story, being open, was generally occupied by men. But in warm weather many ladies preferred to ride up stairs, as they called the top story. The first winter played the mischief with the stone sills, the frost cracking and breaking to pieces many of them, so they were all taken up and replaced with wooden sills. Many of the stone sills can still be seen lying alongside the track in places. The road is very crooked, because the engineers who surveyed it were averse to crossing streams on bridges, so they went around the streams, alleging that it was an advantage to have the road crooked, so the conductor could look back and see that his train was all right. Between Lexington and Midway are two very deep cuts through the solid limestone, which would now be tunneled. Some years afterward it was discovered that there were no tunnels on the road, as in England. A proposition was made to cover these deep cuts over and thus convert them into tunnels; but as there was no spare dirt on top, the expense of getting it up was thought to be too great, so the tunnel project was abandoned as not really essential to the running of the road. After a time a locomotive or steam car, as it was then called, was put on the road. This was a small and even more curious-looking affair than the passenger cars. It had no cab and no such tender as at present. The tender was a sort of flat car, with room for wood and a hoghead of water, which was filled by pumping water from a well on the side of the track. The engineer and fireman were exposed to the weather, having no shelter whatever. The engine was a great curiosity, and was admired all along the line with the greatest interest, wonder and awe by the people of every

class—more especially the black slaves, who regarded it as the work of the devil. There was no pilot or cowcatcher, but in lieu thereof there were two large square beams projecting out in front on each side of the base of the boiler, to which were attached two large hickory brooms, which swept the track and kept it clear of any ordinary obstruction. The grade for about a mile below Lexington was quite steep, the train always coming up it rather slow, and the boys would go down and jump upon those projecting beams and ride up in town on the steam car. This was thought to be a great feat until a colored boy slipped off, and, falling under the driver, was decapitated, after which the boys were deprived of their free ride on the rail. Soon after the locomotive was placed upon the track there was an excursion given from Lexington to Frankfort on flat cars fitted up for the occasion by the railway company. When the train got near Frankfort it began to snow, the engine was immediately run under shelter to keep it from being injured, and the engineer positively refused to run it in the snow, fearing it might run off the slick track and get smashed up. The snow continuing to fall, many of the excursionists footed it back home. Such was railroading in "ye olden time." Frankfort being located in a deep valley—or, rather, hollow—on the Kentucky River, the cars were let down the steep grade by means of a rope wound round a drum or windlass, worked by a stationary steam engine on the top of the hill.

### Movable Houses.

"Movable structures" says the *Lumberman's Gazette*, "or 'shakedown,' as they are sometimes called—buildings for temporary occupation, which can be erected and taken down and removed at will—are becoming a very important article of manufacture. They have been constructed in every conceivable form, and of all sorts of material, but the demand for them was probably never greater than at present. Some Canadian firms have been doing an extensive business for some time in the manufacture of wooden structures which are intended as permanent buildings, but which retain the advantage of being easily removable whenever desirable, in a very short time, with comparatively a trifling amount of trouble and expense. The London (Ont.) *Advertiser*, in alluding to an establishment at Walkerton which engages quite extensively in the manufacture of these residences, says: 'At Messrs. Truax's planing mills orders for a whole row of houses can be filled in a few days, and it is not uncommon to see an entire street for Brandon, or a block for Winnipeg, sent out on a train 20 or 30 days after the order has been received. During the past season Messrs. Truax shipped 219 cars of knock-down house material to the Northwest.' These buildings were the result of necessity during the war, when they were first brought out for use by the sutlers of the army, and many a one has suffered demolition at the hands of soldiers because of the extortions and rascality of the owners. Their use in the army suggested their utility in the prairie country of the Northwest, where timber is scarce, and their practicability has become recognized to such an extent that the demand has become quite excessive. Notwithstanding their recognized utility and adaptability, the disadvantage of weight has overshadowed them, making them, comparatively speaking, quite expensive when they reach their destination. But as necessity brought them to the surface, so in time will it bring their successor if it shall prove inadequate for all the demands, including cheapness, utility, inexpensive transportation, durability and comfort.

"We perceive that an officer in the German army has invented a new form of transportable dwellings, which seem to combine some of the qualities in which the wooden structures are lacking, especially lightness, and that other advantage of compactness when prepared for transportation, which are essential at least for bivouacs and the march. These new aspirants for popularity are made of felt, impregnated with substances which render them impervious to water. The idea is intended to apply specially to hospital tents and the large kind of such dwellings. In addition to being water-tight, these tents are cool in hot weather, and, to some extent, are able to moderate a severely cold temperature. They can be packed into a few comparatively small boxes, and ventilation is duly provided for. They resist hurricanes better than linen tents. Their erection and removal is very simple, and their cost is said to be small in comparison with that of linen tents. If they shall possess all the qualities which are claimed for them, the days of the wooden 'shake-down' may be set down as numbered, as soon as the merits of the new felt houses become fully understood."

When Alexander Graham Bell was asked to say something about the recent decision of the Examiner of Interferences, says an exchange, he laughed and said he had just received it in 200 printed pages, and had not had time to read it. He said generally that he was glad to see the beginning of the end of the telephone litigation. In conversation he said he was still pursuing his investigation in regard to electricity, reading and experimenting almost constantly. Incidentally he was preparing a catalogue of books, pamphlets and even short articles on the subject, with a view to facilitate his own investigation and those of others. He had the titles of 40,000 such productions already. He did not begrudge the hard work involved. Knowledge of what has been done or said in this field would help every electrician very materially. After days of experiment, he sometimes—in fact, often—found that a discovery which seemed absolutely new was only new to him. Professor Bell predicts a great future for the telephone. It has been hindered by the opposition of the telegraph companies. Abroad it has been very generally adopted by the telegraph companies, especially on branch lines in the cities and at small offices in the country. In this way they can get along without telegraph operators at many of the offices whose receipts would not support operators, and they would not be so crippled in case of a strike as are our telegraph companies to-day. Still, there



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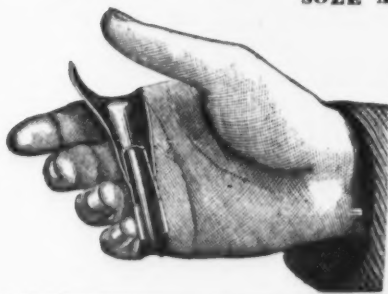
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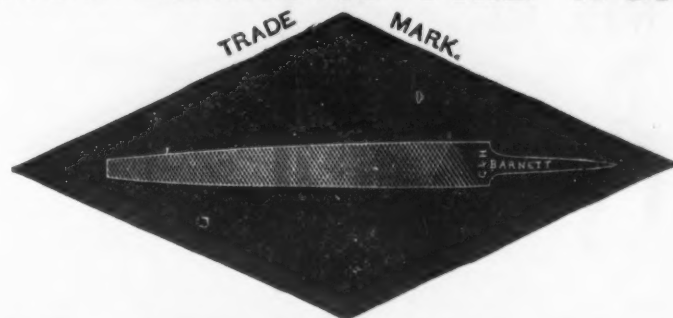
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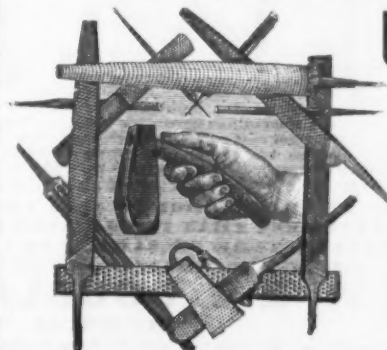
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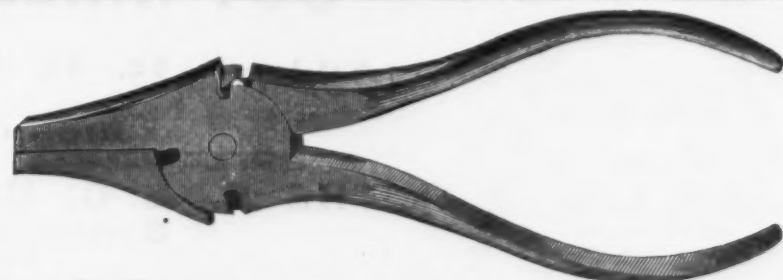
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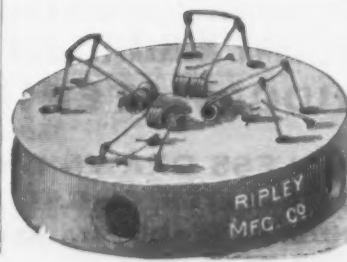
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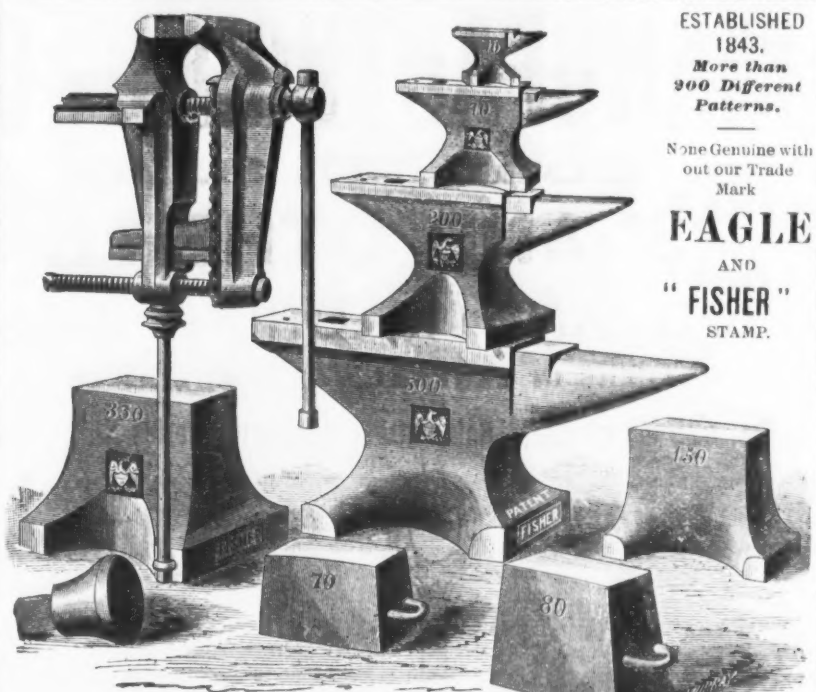
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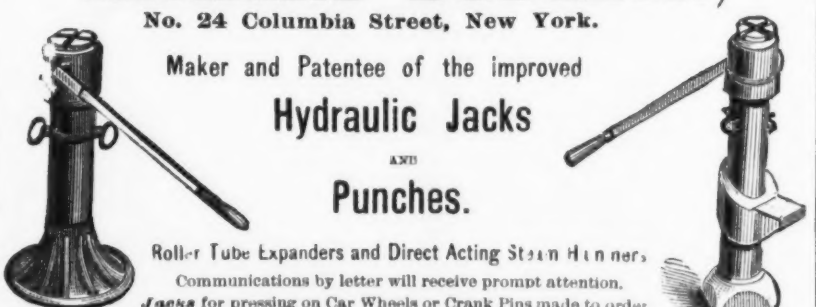
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**Railway Exhibition at Chicago.**

In the last number of the *Journal of the Franklin Institute*, E. Alexander Scott has the following report on the Railway Exposition at Chicago. It is, in the main, a very good one, and the suggestions made are well worth careful consideration. Without doubt, Philadelphia knows how to conduct a great exhibition. She is, by location and local habits, the best city for this purpose in this country, perhaps the best in the world, and we believe that before many years have passed a great railway exhibition will undoubtedly be organized, and Philadelphia is certainly the city, of all others, in which it should be held. Mr. Scott's report is as follows:

At the last stated meeting, the Institute kindly passed a resolution accrediting me as its representative to the National Exhibition of Railway Appliances, now being held at Chicago, with the special duty of looking after the electrical exhibits, and I purpose now to give you a very brief report of my observations. First, then, the exhibition is a success, as such, but financially it is not likely to profit its projectors. This is due to the fact that it did not secure the hearty support of the local press. As is usual with exhibitions, everything was in a very incomplete state on opening day, and there was the usual struggle for space by late exhibitors. On my first visit to the building, I called upon the secretary and directors, and learned from them that the greater part of the work and responsibility had fallen upon two or three gentlemen, and that the burden was much too heavy. This would account for much of the confusion in the installation, which appeared as late as the second week of the exhibition. I found it impossible to get even a list of the electrical exhibits, much less learn where they were located, and I therefore hunted them up, and am not yet certain that I saw them all.

Confining myself, then, entirely to electrical apparatus, and passing by the many large displays of machine tools, forgings, &c., made by Philadelphia manufacturers, I would classify the electro-magnetic apparatus on exhibition under the heads of railway signals, magnetic brakes, electric lights, electro-motors, and general electrical supplies. As the Franklin Institute is now preparing for an electrical exhibition, it might be well to consider early a question which has bothered the managers of the Chicago exhibition, and that is, What to admit and what to reject. One of the first remarks made by a visitor on entering the building is that there are many things there which do not seem to have any connection with railroads, such as type-writers, paper hangings, &c. One exhibitor complained that he was not allowed to exhibit envelopes, because, he said, they were largely used by railroad companies. The secretary, however, told him that they had concluded to draw the line at envelopes.

At first glance it might seem that it would be difficult to secure for an electrical exhibition a sufficient variety of articles to make a respectable show, but electricity has within a few years invaded so many fields hitherto occupied by other agencies that, before another year is upon us, it may be necessary to draw the line closely and exclude much that would occupy space to the detriment of more appropriate articles. The experience at Chicago shows what has often been demonstrated in this city—that the interest is largely increased by showing everything in motion that is made to move. Instruments should be so shown as to demonstrate at a glance what they are made for; otherwise, it may be difficult to make such an exhibition as the Franklin Institute Exhibition of 1884 a popular one. An electric motor which does not move tells no tale except to the expert, and a Leclanché cell so placed that its use is not apparent, might as well be a jar of pickles.

To return to the exhibits, my attention was first called to the various systems of automatic electric railway signals, of which I made a special study. Only two of these appear to have been well digested, and I may here remark that it is surprising how many inventors cudgel their brains to get up apparatus which is of no earthly use, because they have not duly considered the conditions under which the appliances must be used. Automatic signals, to be of any value, must cover every possible case; must provide for every position of trains; but the majority of those exhibited seem to have been gotten up with the idea that the only danger to be guarded against was that a train might be overtaken by a following train or run into an open draw. Unless provision is made for every case which could by any possibility arise, there is no likelihood of any automatic system being adopted on any well-regulated railroad. This is only another illustration that the best inventions originate with the workmen and spring from the necessities of the case.

There are two general systems, one of which uses the railroad track for the electric circuit, and the other uses wires, either carried on poles or in cables. The Union Switch and Signal Company of Pittsburgh, exemplifies the first, and the Hall Railway Signal Company, of Meriden, Conn., the second system, and each seems to have fairly compassed the problem of automatic signaling. Both are in practical operation on railroads in this country. Messrs. Crandell & Strohm, of this city, exhibit an automatic block system in operation which does not throw up visible signals, but which is intended to operate by shutting off the steam and putting on the air-brakes whenever the train enters a block which is not clear. Other systems are exhibited which aim to accomplish the same result. The perfection of the Westinghouse air-brake would seem to close the field against any brake operated by a different method. The use of this brake, however, has hitherto been confined to passenger trains or short stock trains. This leaves a field for a good magnetic brake for freight trains, and two very creditable brakes of this character were shown. Both are actuated by a dynamo upon the locomotive, and one supplements this by a storage battery in

each car to operate the brakes when the car is separated from the locomotive. There are several practical objections to these brakes in their present state of development, but a thoroughly good magnetic brake may yet be perfected.

The electric light was represented by five different systems of arc and incandescence lights. We are all now so familiar with the arc light that I may simply say that they were all very good and all claimed to be the best. I may say, however, that one system had many admirers, and its lights, which were scattered plentifully through the whole space, were complimented for their beauty and steadiness. The inventors of that system are our honored associates, Messrs. Thompson & Houston. The incandescence lights of the Maxim, Edison and Swan systems were in endless profusion and much admired. Electric motors did not show up very well. The only style was the Weston dynamo, used as a motor on the Field & Edison Electric Railway, and in another place to operate a centrifugal pump for a waterfall. Prof. Sylvanus Thompson says there is a great field for electric transmission of power, but if the inventions thus far made public are the best that our inventors have developed, we have not yet climbed the fence. So far as the public are concerned, the electric railway is a success; the people stand in line for a chance to ride on it. But at what expense of power are the motor and loaded car, weighing in all, perhaps, four tons, propelled? On investigation I found that an 18-horse-power engine was not equal to the task of moving the train, and the gates were shut against the public until the wires were connected with a 40-light dynamo, run by a much more powerful engine. In like manner the dynamo which operated the pump was a five or six light machine run by a 40-light dynamo. The improvements in dynamos are chiefly in the new regulators for reducing the power to correspond with the reduction in work performed. The storage battery made no show and seems to have been withdrawn from the public for a time. In conclusion, I would say that although the display at Chicago is a fine one and well worth a visit, I think we do these things better in Philadelphia, and the Franklin Institute, with its long experience and excellent organization, will have no trouble in arranging an exhibition more extensive, more attractive, and much more valuable in its results.

**Boiler Setting.**

The Locomotive, which, by the way, is full of little practical sermons on matters connected with boilers and their uses, has the following item in regard to a dangerous form of boiler setting often encountered, and often, no doubt, the cause of those mysterious explosions about which so much breath and valuable time are wasted:

In setting a horizontal tubular boiler, the brickwork of the furnace is so adjusted as to expose nearly or quite one-half of the exterior surface of the boiler to the direct action of the heat, but care is taken to close in the brick sides of the setting at a point below which the water never falls except through carelessness and neglect. It will be readily seen that if the fire and direct heat from the furnace is allowed to come in contact with portions of the boiler that are not protected by the water within, there will be danger of burning the iron and destroying its strength. We call attention to this danger from the fact that we have found boilers so set that the fire line is above the water line of the boiler, and a strip of varying width, extending the whole length of the boiler, is exposed to the action of the fire without the protection of water within. The evident object of this plan of setting is to get as much heating surface as possible, so as to secure great evaporative efficiency. But in the effort to secure this efficiency safety is forgotten. It should be borne in mind that "efficiency" at the expense of safety is not economy, and while a boiler may apparently do unusually good service at first by some such plan, it may prove very expensive in the end in repairs, and in greatly shortening the working age of the boiler. Any device that ignores sound principles is dangerous, and the effort to gain an advantage by such practices, where the party doing them is intelligent enough to know the danger, is inexcusable. It is introducing an element of trickery that should not for a moment be tolerated. A person setting a boiler may be ignorant of the danger of bringing the fires of the furnace in direct contact with unprotected iron, but with a full knowledge of the danger, there is no excuse.

It is considered highly probable that the discovery of the cementation process for making steel had its origin in Liège, Belgium. At the commencement of the 17th century, in 1613, a permission to convert iron into steel is found to have been officially accorded to two armorers of Maestricht, a town which then belonged to the Province of Liège. Judging from this, the metallurgist, Karsten, was probably correct in saying that "England, which has now become the school of iron metallurgy, owes to the Continent two great discoveries—namely, that of the blast furnace and that of cementing steel."

The Brooks Underground Conduit Company, of Philadelphia, have completed arrangements for a trial of their system of laying electric wires underground. Preliminary tests made up to the present time have given very satisfactory results, and it is confidently expected that subsequent trials will fully meet all expectations. Reports from Chicago are also to the effect that a similar step has been taken in that city by the Postal Telegraph Company. Speaking of the results of the enterprise, a gentleman prominently connected with the company stated that they proved highly satisfactory.

In the records of the Custom House the interesting fact appears that a very large proportion of the rails and other supplies used in building the Canadian Pacific Railway are taken to Canada by way of this city. The road is being built of foreign steel rails, and the material is landed at New York and thence transported through the United States, to be delivered in Canada.



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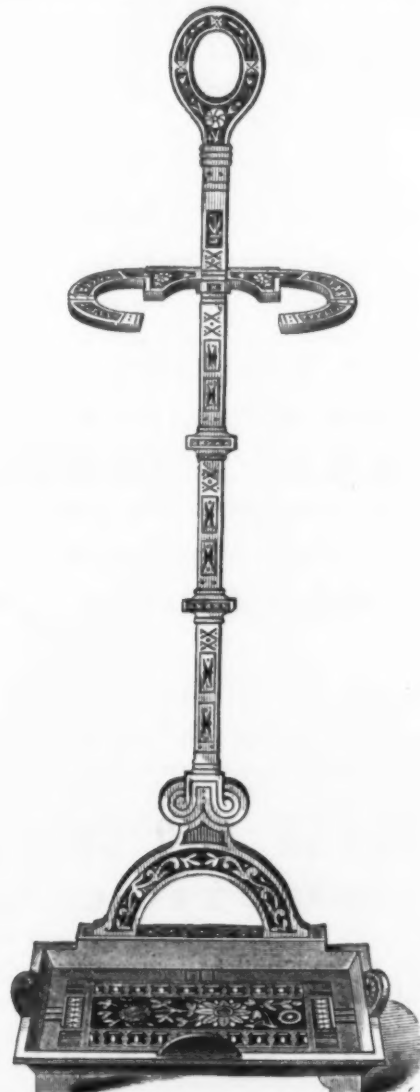
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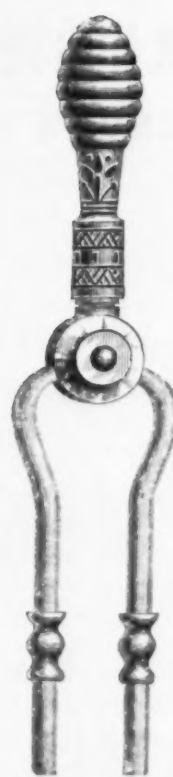
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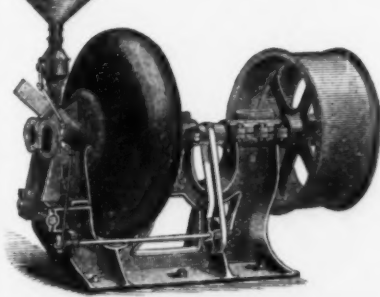
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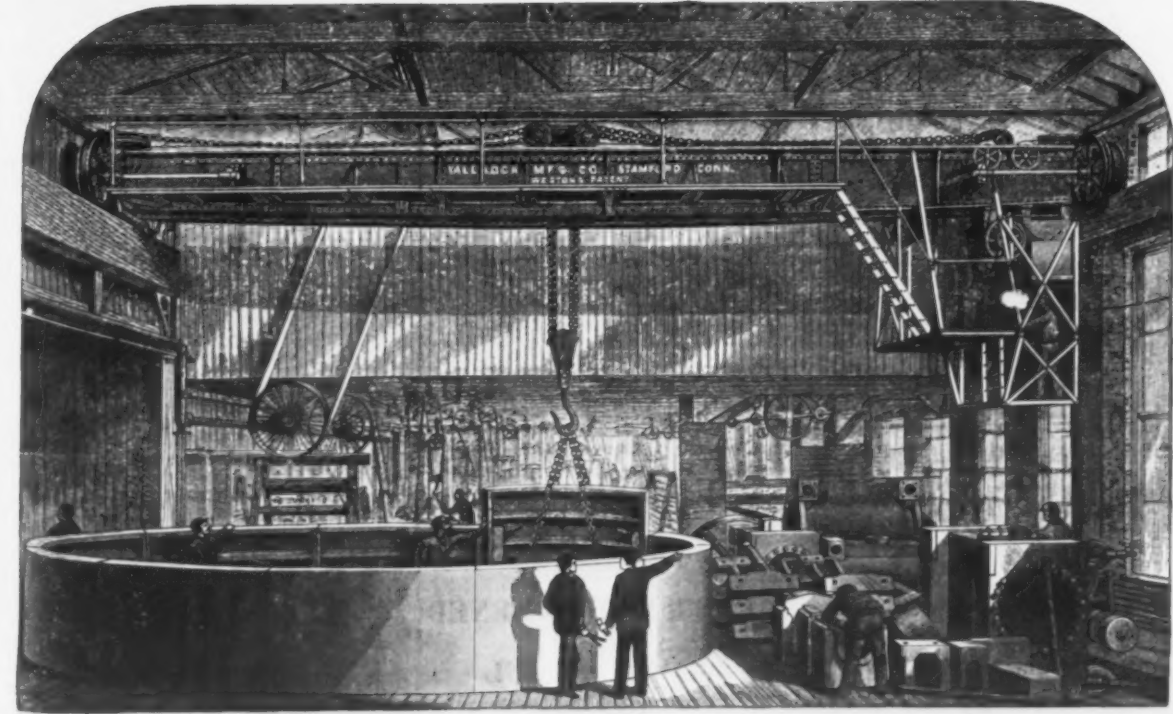
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## The Driven-Well Patent.

In reply to letters of inquiry from correspondents asking for the present legal status of Green's driven-well patent, we print the following, which, we believe, states the case fully and correctly:

Nelson W. Green, a colonel of New York volunteers in the late war, to give the men of his command pure water, devised, in his own mind, a method by which this could be done. He first explained his idea to his drill squad, and afterward to the officers of his regiment, and it was this: To drive a rod sharpened at the end through the ground into the water-bearing stratum, and inserting in the bore a tube through which the water could be drawn by any ordinary style of pump. A test of this method was made successfully in 1861 on the plan of Green, and in the same year on the fair grounds at Cortland, N. Y., at the expense of one Graham, who had a contract to supply food and other necessary articles to the soldiers encamped there. This well was used generally by the men in camp, and by Graham and his employees. In 1868 Green procured a patent for this invention, and in 1871 had a reissue thereof, in which he claimed as his invention the creation of a vacuum in the lining of the well for the purpose of using the pressure of the atmosphere to bring up the water. In a suit—Andrews vs. Hovey—brought in the United States Circuit Court for the Northern District of Iowa, for an injunction and damages for the infringement of his patent, the defendant, first, denied that Green was the inventor of the driven well; second, averred that if he was the inventor, he had abandoned his right to a patent by allowing a public use of the invention for more than two years before the granting of the patent, and, third, that the claim under the reissue was broader than in the first patent. On the trial the foregoing facts were shown, and it was also proved that this method of driving wells was used at Milwaukee, Wis., in 1849, and at Independence, Mo., in 1851, and it was also shown that the original inventor did not claim the creation of the vacuum and the effect of the atmospheric pressure. Judge Shiras, in dismissing the bill, said:

1. Whatever may be the intention of the inventor, if he suffers the invention to go into public use through any means whatever, without an immediate assertion of his right, he is not entitled to a patent, nor will a patent then obtained protect his right.

2. It is shown that in 1851, at Independence, Mo., a tube was driven into the water-bearing stratum, and, by a pump attached to the tube, water was drawn through it in an apparently inexhaustible quantity. This might be treated as a mere isolated experiment, which would not be held to defeat the right of an independent inventor. But in 1849 and in 1850, E. W. Purdy, a witness in this case, as he testifies, was a well-maker in Milwaukee, Wis., and he used iron rods about 2 inches in diameter and coupled together. The first rod was 16 feet long, with its lower end made for a drill, and it was worked in the earth by being run over a gin-pole, and so the earth was displaced. The 4-inch tubing was driven into the opening as the boring progressed. No soil was removed from the ground, except that where quicksands were struck a long sheet-iron bucket, with a valve at the bottom, was employed to bring up the quicksand. When the water was reached, if it did not come to the surface, a pump was attached to the tubing which formed the lining of the well. Purdy testifies that he drove a number of these wells, some of them to the depth of 60 and 100 feet. We must confess that we cannot see any substantial difference between these wells and those by the Green method.

3. It is urged that the great merit of Col. Green's invention consists in the discovery of the effect of the vacuum created. According to the view we take of the original patent, it did not cover or describe the application of this principle. It follows, therefore, that the reissue embraces the application of an important and material principle not found in the original. The rule is well settled that a reissue can be validly granted only for the same invention which was originally patented. If the reissue goes beyond this, and covers other and different inventions or improvements suggested by the use of the original invention, it will be void.

## Large Marine Shafts.

The most ponderous forging about a marine engine is its shaft, and the huge size and great power of many of the engines now constructed require shafts of a size far beyond the capabilities of ordinary steam hammers. Up to a comparatively recent period all marine shafts were made of iron, but steel is gradually supplanting iron for this purpose, as it has for so many others. In matters of this kind European steel makers are far in advance of our manufacturers, having equipped themselves with very large hammers and other appliances for the successful manipulation of the large masses of steel required. The possessors of the largest hammers in Europe, and therefore in the world, are the Krupp Works in Germany, and the Creusot Works in France, which boast of 80-ton and 50-ton hammers respectively. There are several works in England which contain rather powerful hammers, but none of them, we believe, equals Krupp's hammer.

In this country there are several establishments which can turn out shafts of ordinary size, but the works possessing the largest hammer, and therefore capable of handling the heaviest forging, are the Black Diamond Steel Works, of Park, Brother & Co., at Pittsburgh, whose largest hammer is rated at 17 tons. Their most recent achievement in this line is an open-hearth steel shaft which is 33 feet long, 16 1/2 inches in diameter in the middle, and 15 1/2 inches in diameter at the journals. It weighs 24,000 pounds as finished. It is intended for the Mississippi Valley Transportation Company, of St. Louis, which is now engaged in carrying grain to New Orleans in barges which are towed by large steamboats. The Black Diamond Steel Works are now making two other large steel shafts.

The manufacture of these very heavy forgings is a new branch of business in the United States, and Park, Brother & Co. say that they experience some difficulty in securing enough orders to keep their large hammer in constant operation. At the same time the field is a promising one, as orders are constantly being sent abroad for steel shafts, and our domestic works will undoubtedly get a fair share of the business when it is proved that their shafts are as well made and contain as trustworthy steel as those made abroad.

## NEW PUBLICATIONS.

SWINEFORD'S ANNUAL REVIEW.—1883. Annual Review of the Iron, Copper and other Industries of the Upper Peninsula of Michigan, for the year ending December 31, 1882. Pamphlet, 200 pages.

Mr. A. P. Swineford, the senior editor of the Marquette Mining Journal, has, for a number of years, issued a review of the mining industries of Upper Michigan, which has acquired a recognized position among the statistical and technical publications of the country. More attention is paid to iron ore than to any other interest, as the number of iron-ore mines is very much larger than of other minerals. The production of the district is given by years from its development, and the exact condition and prospects of each mine are carefully set forth. The blast furnaces of the district are not overlooked, and careful descriptions of them are also given. Mr. Swineford manifests very great interest in his work, and the volume is evidently of much practical value to all connected with the iron trade. The United States depends so largely for its supply of iron ore on the Lake Superior district that knowledge of the operations there conducted is very desirable. It is unfortunate that other mining regions of the country do not have historians and statisticians as well as the Lake Superior district. We ought to have exact information every year of the quantity of iron ore mined in each State. According to Mr. Swineford's "Review," the production of the Lake Superior iron-ore mines in 1882 was 2,943,307 gross tons, valued at \$24,263,742. There was an increase of over 600,000 tons on the quantity mined in 1881. This year, however, the production thus far is about 500,000 tons below that of 1882. The total quantity of iron ore mined from the beginning of operations in the district down to the close of 1882 was 20,590,840 tons, valued at \$164,862,180. The quantity of refined copper produced in 1882 was 28,491 net tons, valued at \$10,466,328.32, and the total production from the beginning down to the close of 1882 was 356,820 net tons, valued at \$163,937,786.

## Poor's Railroad Manual.

"Poor's Railroad Manual" for 1883 has just been issued, and, as usual, gives a complete review of the railroads of the United States. Some indication of the extensive character of the work is afforded by the fact that the compilation covers considerably more than 1000 pages, and is accompanied by numerous maps of different sections of the country. The introduction to the "Manual," embracing somewhat over 100 pages, has been printed separately for the use of the press, and will be found very convenient, giving, as it does, a fair idea of the year's work in a condensed form. Besides a brief general account, it contains tabulated statements showing the length of all railroads in the United States, their equipment, share capital, funded and floating debts, cost of roads and equipment, length of lines operated, traffic operations, earnings and payments, and a variety of other interesting details, together with a statement of lines of railroad constructed in 1882, and the total length of all railroads in the world.

Mexican Imports and Exports.—An official statement of the exports of Mexico for the fiscal year 1881-82, just published, shows that the United States is by far the best customer of Mexico, also that Mexico buys more from the United States than from any other country. The total exportation to the United States was \$13,760,861.85, including \$5,451,731.13 in precious metals and \$8,309,130.73 in regular exports, while England, the next on the list, makes a total showing of \$10,284,374.85, but, taking away the \$8,696,379.07 in precious metals sent to that country, the ordinary trade sinks to the comparatively small sum of \$1,587,995.78. The table of exports for the five years from July 1, 1877, to June 30, 1882, affords some instructive comparisons, showing a steady increase in the regular exports of the country through the entire period, the figures being \$6,701,061.35 for 1877-78, \$8,466,860.69 for 1878-79, \$10,627,220.73 for 1879-80, \$10,674,604.37 for 1880-81 and \$12,019,526.06 for 1881-82. Meanwhile, notwithstanding the greatly increased importations, there has been a steady decrease in the exportation of precious metals. The amount exported shows a decrease from \$22,584,599.55 in 1877-78 to \$17,063,767.33 in 1881-82. Among the important articles of export which may be mentioned as having shown a remarkable increase in these five years are henequin, which has risen from \$1,078,075.22 to \$2,672,106.72; coffee, from \$1,242,041.40 to \$2,414,538.29; skins, from \$997,043.21 to \$1,708,554.15; vanilla, from \$312,109.46 to \$780,830.47; issue, \$346,196.56 to \$620,199.24; tobacco, \$86,713.27 to \$351,253.17; living animals, \$30,009 to \$137,681; indigo, \$61,523.60 to \$204,798; caoutchouc, or rubber, \$955.96 to \$114,455.92. Woods appear to have remained about stationary. Sugars show a slight falling off, and orchilla, the famous dye-stuff, a remarkable fluctuation. In 1877-78 the export was \$223,145.73; in 1880-81 it had declined to \$15,514.85, and in 1881-82 it advanced to \$131,617.63.

A letter describing Tacoma, at the western end of the Northern Pacific Railroad, speaks of the splendid fir timber that grows in "almost inexhaustible quantity" in the neighborhood. Mills have already been erected to cut 200,000 feet per day, and if Tacoma grows in Western fashion it will not be many years before there will be a scarcity of timber there, as in other parts of the country, unless efforts are made to replace it.



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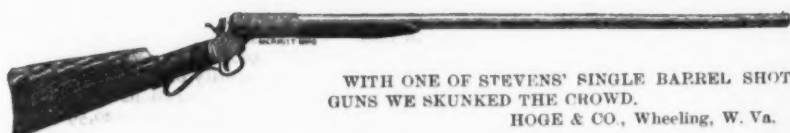
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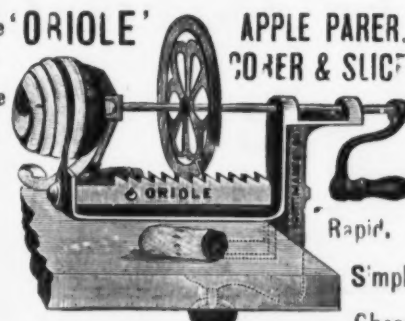


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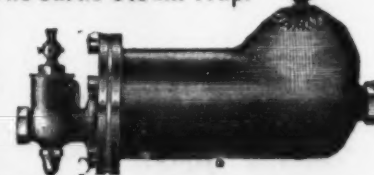
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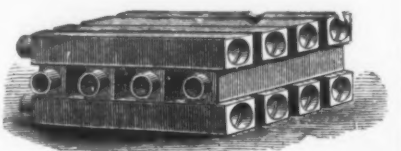
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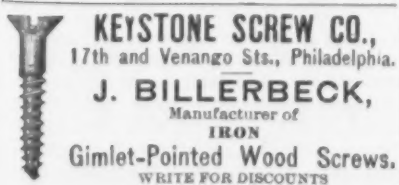
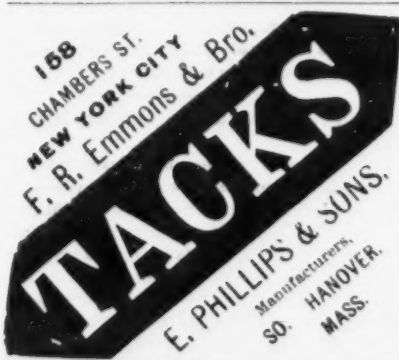
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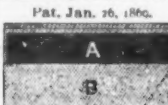
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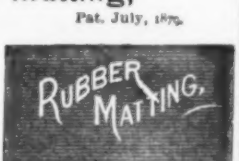
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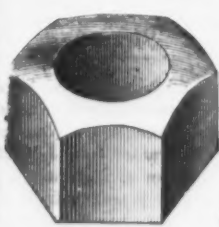
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## Electrical Engineering.

Inspection of the annual catalogue of the Stevens Institute of Technology for 1883 shows that the department of applied electricity will hereafter receive increased attention at that school. "In view of the rapid developments of electrical science and the close relations existing between many of the new applications of electricity and the work of the mechanical engineer," reads a paragraph relating to the subject, "it has been judged advisable to extend the regular course of the Institute somewhat in this direction. The fact that a large number of our present graduates hold prominent and responsible positions in the electrical companies throughout the country, sufficiently proves that our course, as heretofore carried out, is well adapted to prepare those pursuing it for the profession of the electrical engineer, who must manifestly be first of all a mechanical engineer, and on this foundation build a certain amount of knowledge and experience in the special theory and practice of electric applications.

It is believed that by the addition to our former general instruction in electric science of a special department of applied electricity as a part of our regular course, the actual requirements of the profession will be best met. The means of inaugurating this new department have been placed in the hands of the trustees, and it is confidently believed that what may be required for its permanent establishment will be supplied in due time by those most interested in this subject. In this department it is intended to supplement the theoretical knowledge acquired in our previous regular course by systematic laboratory instruction; in the management and care of batteries, galvanometers, rheostats, electrometers, condensers, &c.; in the measurement of resistance of wires, batteries, insulation resistance and capacity of cables, electro-motive force, &c. These and other experiments are to be made sufficiently numerous and varied to familiarize the student with electrical terms, as potential, electro-motive force, resistance, &c.; to give him a realizing sense of the various electrical magnitudes, as Volt, Ohm, Ampere, &c., and to point out the quantitative relations of these units to the ordinary mechanical ones. Special attention will then be given to problems in connection with dynamo machines, such as the measurement of powerful currents, determinations of efficiency in generators and in electric motors, photometry of arc and incandescent lamps, consumption of energy in generator, conductors and lamps, dimensions of wires for various currents, &c. By the courtesy of electric companies visits will also be made to examine their lighting plant and manufactories."

## Heights of Church Spires.

Every one who has had occasion to note the heights of architectural works as given in guide-books, encyclopedias and other authorities on the subject, must have been struck by the varying figures often given for the same structure. The discrepancy is probably due, in many cases, to confounding the feet of different countries, these being of slightly different length. The following, which appeared in the Cologne Gazette just before the completion of the cathedral in Cologne, is said to be based upon accurate measurements, and will be worth preserving for reference:

"The two towers of our cathedral are now the highest buildings on the earth; they exceed by 1.50 m. the tower of St. Nicholas Church, in Hamburg, which is 144.20 m. high. When completed, they will measure 160 m., reckoning from the pavement of the cathedral cloisters, or 157 m. reckoning from the floor of the church itself. The following are the heights of the most remarkable high buildings in the world: Towers of Cologne Cathedral, 160 m., or 157 m. (524 ft. 11 in., or 515 ft. 1 in.); tower of St. Nicholas, at Hamburg, 144.20 m. (473 ft. 1 in.); cupola of St. Peter's, Rome, 143 m. (469 ft. 2 in.); cathedral spire at Strasburg, 142 m. (465 ft. 11 in.); Pyramid of Cheops, 137 m. (449 ft. 5 in.); tower of St. Stephen's, in Vienna, 135.30 m. (443 ft. 10 in.); tower of St. Martin's at Landsbut, 132.50 m. (434 ft. 8 in.); cathedral spire at Freiburg, 125 m. (410 ft. 1 in.); cathedral of Antwerp, 123.40 m. (404 ft. 10 in.); cathedral of Florence, 119 m. (390 ft. 5 in.); St. Paul's, London, 111.30 m. (365 ft. 1 in.); ridge tiles of Cologne Cathedral, 109.80 m. (360 ft. 3 in.); cathedral tower at Magdeburg, 103.60 m. (339 ft. 11 in.); tower of the new Votive Church, at Vienna, 96 m. (314 ft. 11 in.); tower of the Rathaus, at Berlin, 88 m. (288 ft. 8 in.); towers of Notre Dame, at Paris, 71 m. (232 ft. 11 in.)."

The above enumeration does not include the iron spire of the cathedral at Rouen, in France, which has been completed within a few years, after standing for many years without its apex or final. The statements as to its height vary somewhat, but all agree in making it a little higher than the Strasburg spire. Our Washington monument at the national capital is to be even higher than the Cologne spire, if it is ever finished. It will be observed that no American buildings are given in the list we have quoted.

**Old Building Material.**—An extensive trade in second-hand building material has been carried on in this city for many years back, being largely supported by builders and joiners. The stone and brick of an old building are used in the construction of a new one, the lime-whitened bricks making the inside of the outer walls and the partitions, and the stone going into the foundations. But it may not be generally known that the inside woodwork is used again, frequently without radical alteration. Many builders prefer this old timber because it is thoroughly seasoned, having been defended from the weather and been subjected to the influences of a measurably even temperature for years. The richer woods which are admired for their color acquire mellow tones by age, and become more valuable as the years pass. Everybody knows that furniture of mahogany and rosewood that has outlived several generations is much handsomer than that made from new wood. But it has an added

value as mere material. An article made from the old wood will remain in its integrity in all its joints; its shrinking days are over. For the same reason the timbering, wainscoting and flooring of old buildings have an added value, although their selling price is less than that of new material.

## Japanese Railways.

A correspondent of the Boston Transcript gives the following interesting account describing a trip on a Japanese railway:

A portion of the Tokaido (a leading highway) is now nearly deserted on account of the Tokio-Yokohama Railroad. Close to Yokohama is a small town called Kanagawa, and from this place the pilgrims now commence their tramp. Kanagawa is about 15 miles from Tokio, and third-class passengers can ride there for about 20 cents, certainly much cheaper than an 18-mile walk with the cost of a lunch. The Tokio-Yokohama Railroad is a Government affair, as everything else is here. Although it cripples individual enterprise, it secures the success of a thing to have the Government control it. The railroad and the telegraph systems are very satisfactory, and the postal system is just about perfect.

Trains are run between the two stations every hour and a quarter during the day, leaving both stations simultaneously. The whole equipment is English. The cars are divided into three classes. Even the first-class cars are decidedly plain. These are divided into three compartments. The second-class cars would hardly be used on a horse railroad in Boston. They are as plain as plain can be, and made just like a horse-car, having two long seats on the sides facing each other. The seats are upholstered with the same kind of matting which the Japanese use on their floors. The third-class cars have simply plain benches for seats. The exterior of all three classes is the same. The engines are smaller than the shifting engines in the Boston depots. The time required for the 18 miles' ride is 57 minutes. Everything pertaining to the road is kept in the best condition. The road-bed is like a floor; the cars are clean; the stations are clean; all the officials are uniformed. I never knew one of them to be in any way impolite. Passengers are not allowed to cross the track except by the bridges overhead. Following English custom, the trains run on the left-hand track. No baggage is allowed to go free, save such as one can take in his hand. You can take no living thing into the train, not even a canary, without paying an extra price. Posted up in the stations is a notice to the effect that the Government does not run its road for the transportation of dogs, but if dogs must travel, provision has been made for them. So every station is provided with boxes, latticed on top, in which poodle or mastiff can be transported for a definite sum. I understand that when it is necessary to transport a dead body an extra car is put on for the purpose.

Let us start on our 18 miles' ride from the Tokio station. It is a fine, large building built of stone, having two large entrances in front. The waiting rooms are furnished with the daily and native foreign papers. Five minutes before the train starts a warning bell is rung. The ticket office is styled a "booking office," and a notice tells you that you must be "booked" before you can enter the train. Just before the train starts the bell is again rung in the station and the doors closed, so there is no possible chance for a belated passenger to "run for the train," and possibly get run over by the train. There are no side doors, either, through which you can dodge the official. Having booked yourself, or purchased your ticket, you are allowed to pass through a very narrow passageway to the outward-bound train, showing your ticket as you pass. Although there is no gold leaf or bird's-eye maple on the cars, there are other arrangements that more than compensate for this loss of elegance. One of these is that by buying a round-trip ticket to any station you get a discount of 50 per cent. on return ticket—tickets good for one day only. Fare to Yokohama, first-class, \$1; round trip, \$1.50; second-class, 60 cents; round trip, 90 cents. No official goes with the train; no brakemen in dulcet tones whispers out the name of the next station. The only brake on the train is on a car made specially for that purpose, and attached to the rear of the engine. No conductor shouts, "Tickets, please," and when he has finished his rounds, sits down by the fair miss who goes daily for her music lessons. Every passenger is expected to enter the class car for which he holds a ticket. If he doesn't do this and he is found out, there is a penalty for his misdemeanor.

When it is time for the train to start, an official on the platform blows a little whistle, the steam engine blows a shrill whistle, which would be terrific if it were only powerful enough, and off we go. And now we see one advantage over the average American railroad—there is not the slightest jerk in starting; indeed, you never know when you are really in motion unless you look at objects outside the window. The train glides (that just expresses it), not swiftly to be sure, for it is swift, probably upsets a native like swiftness—time is no object here.

The National Railroad Company of Japan, incorporated, with a capital of \$20,000,000, under the auspices of the Japanese Government, two years ago, has adopted the American system of building railroads, and is now constructing the main line, which extends from Tokio to Anderson, the northern seaport of Japan, a distance of 450 miles. A part of the main line, about 150 miles in length, has already been finished, and will be open to the public this month or next. The terminus of the line is the commercial center of a province where silk culture is the principal occupation of the people.

Probably the strongest single electric light now in this country is suspended in front of the Record building in Philadelphia, some 90 feet above the level of the street. Its power is equal to that of 10,000 candles.



# The Iron Age

AND  
Metallurgical Review.

New York, Thursday, September 6, 1883.

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Condition of the Iron Trade.

The present condition of the pig-iron trade may be termed one of expectancy. There is a perceptible movement, but it is very sluggish, and apparently cannot be quickened. The future is regarded with great confidence, however, by very many of those interested in the trade, and an early improvement in the demand is predicted by some of the best informed. The setting in of autumn is accompanied by many circumstances which should exert a favorable influence on trade. Summer vacations are ended now, and a more serious view of life is taken by people generally than when they were sweltering with midsummer heat, or were trying to kill time at the seaside, the mountains or the springs. The fall movement in breadstuffs has commenced, and farmers are getting ready money, which they will undoubtedly put into circulation. The fall season in many lines of goods has opened briskly, and it is perfectly reasonable to expect the iron trade to sympathize to some extent. Again, railroad building is not dead, and there are projects in contemplation which will be put under way next year, though, of course, they will not be on as great a scale as the enterprises which have been in progress of construction for the past few years. It remains to be seen how much effect these various factors will have upon the pig-iron trade, but they all contribute to the feeling of hopeful expectancy which is now prevalent. There is no encouragement for idle furnaces to blow in, however, as there will hardly be much improvement in prices, even if the demand does slightly increase. An enlargement of production will very probably postpone general improvement and cause demoralization. The pig-iron trade seems to have specially felt the burden of the season's dullness, and it needs to be carefully handled.

The trade in manufactured iron is generally in a satisfactory condition. There is very little doing in bar iron, comparatively speaking, and prices are almost at bare cost, but shapes, plate and sheet iron and nails and spikes are in good demand at prices which afford a profit, although it is a very small one. Not every mill is employed, and it is best that all should not be active, for if they were the production would evidently exceed the consumption, and demoralization would ensue. There may be some trouble in sustaining prices at their present range, now that mills are able to run more steadily than during the summer months, but as yet there is no indication in this vicinity of any weakness.

The steel trade is in good condition, so far

as steel rails are concerned, but the demand for merchant steel is not what it should be, and prices are so low as to be profitless. The competition of Bessemer and open-hearth steel has greatly reduced the price of low-grade crucible steel, and there is also a foreign competition beginning which has been encouraged by the low rates of the new tariff.

## Last Year's Foreign Trade.

In our last issue we briefly reviewed the preliminary report of the foreign commerce of the United States during the past fiscal year, recently issued by the Bureau of Statistics. Though the facts and figures there given touch upon the more prominent features of the subject, some detailed statements may be found desirable. Thus, as regards the values of imports and exports of merchandise, and the excess of one or the other, the following table will be found interesting, showing, as it does, the import and export movement for each year since 1870, the figures being arranged in groups of five-year periods in order to make comparisons more convenient:

| Year ending June 30. | Imports.     | Exports.     | Excess of exports over imports. |
|----------------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1870-71              | \$24,211,684 | \$44,320,178 | \$20,108,494                    |
| 1871-72              | \$26,597,572 | \$44,447,922 | \$17,850,350                    |
| 1872-73              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1873-74              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1874-75              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1875-76              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1876-77              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1877-78              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1878-79              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1879-80              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1880-81              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1881-82              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1882-83              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |
| 1883-84              | \$28,135,640 | \$44,447,922 | \$16,312,282                    |

It will be readily seen from this that since 1876 an unusual expansion in exports has occurred, due, in a great measure, to the rapid agricultural development of the country. The imports also have since that time shown a steady increase, but not before having experienced a sudden decline, amounting to somewhat over \$73,000,000. Altogether, the exports for the year ended June 30, 1883, when compared with those of 10 years ago, exhibit an increase of over \$300,000,000, a similar comparison with the imports, on the other hand, yielding an increase of only \$80,000,000. The fact, however, should not be ignored that the imports preceding the panic of 1873 offer no guide to our legitimate consumption or actual wants at that time, having been raised to an unnaturally high figure by speculative movements. It is, therefore, but proper to give this point due consideration when regarding the present figures for imports. In the year 1880, as shown in our table, the imports exceeded those of 1873 by some \$25,000,000, and two years later another increase, amounting to some \$57,000,000, as compared with 1880, was experienced. This large expansion was in a great measure accounted for by an increase in the importation of certain articles of food rendered necessary by a short crop. But during the past fiscal year, when this circumstance could not be taken into consideration, the falling off did in no way correspond with what might have been anticipated. In fact, the decrease amounted to little over \$1,500,000. Reviewing the figures for the year shows that in certain large items there was a decrease, but the increase in other directions almost counterbalanced it. The largest decrease, as might naturally be expected, was noticed in connection with iron and steel, the figures for 1882 and 1883 being \$51,377,633 and \$40,796,007 respectively. Coffee, tea, barley and potatoes likewise show large reductions, while in such items as cotton manufactures, wool, tobacco, &c., an increase is recorded. The extent to which tariff changes affected these importations can be only vaguely estimated, but that they exerted some influence cannot be doubted.

Even a casual inspection of the table of exports and imports given above will, perhaps, impress upon the reader the fact that, notwithstanding the large crops of last season, the value of exports falls short of that for the year 1880 and of 1881. With the exception of corn, the crops were the largest ever harvested in the country, and it may seem singular that this circumstance should not be reflected in the exports. In explanation of this, it is very appropriately pointed out that the crop year and Government year are not identical, and that the corn crop last year, which was 422,000,000 bushels greater than that of the previous season, did not count in the exports to any extent until the second half of the fiscal year. But there is still another factor which may escape attention. That portion of the crop (usually a heavy proportion in years of large yield) which is turned into meat did not make itself felt at all, since the process requires time. The smaller provisions exports this year are really the effect of the drought of 1881, and also the work of the severe winter

that preceded the drought, and which destroyed so many cattle on the Western plains. From this it would seem that larger exports of provisions during the current fiscal year should follow as a result of the more favorable conditions which prevailed in 1882. In this connection the following table, giving the value of each of our leading staples of exports, will prove of interest:

| Staple.         | 1880-81.      | 1881-82.      | 1882-83.      |
|-----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Cotton          | \$247,328,721 | \$109,812,644 | \$247,605,746 |
| Breadstuffs     | 202,971,401   | 177,001,306   | 265,561,091   |
| Provisions, &c. | 98,726,419    | 112,875,270   | 145,622,078   |
| Petroleum       | 44,913,079    | 51,232,705    | 40,315,609    |
| Total           | \$592,039,750 | \$449,921,616 | \$699,104,524 |

These figures strikingly show the importance of the staples in question, cotton being at the head of the list. So far as the position is concerned which the different ports occupy in the trade movement, New York, as usual, boasts of the first place, the percentage of exports shipped in 1882-83 amounting to 43.88 per cent. of the whole, and the proportion of imports received being 68.59 per cent. Comparing these figures with those for the two preceding years, it is noticed that there has been practically no change in this direction, and under the increasing competition of adjoining ports, New York seems, in fact, to gain slightly. Next in rank to New York in the line of exports comes New Orleans, with 11.54 per cent. of the whole, and then follows Boston with 7.57 per cent., Baltimore with 6.69 per cent., San Francisco with 5.46 per cent., and Philadelphia with 4.63 per cent. As regards imports, New York is followed by Boston with 10.04 per cent., San Francisco coming next with 6.32 per cent.; Philadelphia is represented by 4.66 per cent.; Baltimore by 2.02, and New Orleans by 1.33. The figures available in this connection would seem to suggest that only a few ports, such as New York, Boston and San Francisco, seem to have been able to retain or improve their position as respects imports, notwithstanding the fact that they may have largely increased their exports. In the line of exports a much greater fluctuation is noticeable, and the relative positions of the different cities depend largely upon good or bad crops, and, as the latter are without influence on larger trade centers, it is not surprising to notice corresponding variations in the figures for New York or other ports of importance.

The Fall Trade Outlook For Stoves.

There is a general disposition among stove manufacturers to take a hopeful view of the fall trade outlook. It is admitted that trade is late, and that buyers are showing much caution in supplying their prospective wants, but no one so far as we know, entertains the opinion that the aggregate trade of the season will not be satisfactory. Prices, in the main, are well maintained, but we hear a good deal of *sub rosa* gossip about exaggerated credits. It is stated, on what is assumed to be good authority, that a good many orders have been secured for June, July and August shipments, on agreement to date bills Sept. 1, give the usual four months, collect on goods sold up to Jan. 1, and extend on those remaining unsold until April, or at the dealer's convenience. We do not know how much of this sort of business is done, but much or little, it is utterly demoralizing. Goods "sold" on such a basis are not sold at all. They are in reality placed with dealers on consignments. The dealer who conceives that such a system is favorable to his interests does not know as much now as he will learn from experience. No manufacturer can afford to do business on such a basis, and no dealer can afford to waste his time introducing goods so distributed, for he will need to do the whole thing over again when he has to change his line. We are glad to believe that this reckless abuse of the credit system is not general, and that the better class of dealers are not asking nor expecting such terms.

Concerning the "lateness" of the stove trade this year, we think it neither surprising nor alarming. The tendency is steadily in that direction, and each year is likely to make it more evident. The only check upon the tendency of the dealers to postpone all purchases until the last minute is the inability of the manufacturers and wholesale agents to ship their entire stock between the time dealers are good and ready to order and the time at which they must have their stock in saleable condition. No house does or can maintain the machinery needed for distributing its entire product on September 1, but the dealer is very apt to forget that his order is only one of a great many, that every other tardy purchaser wants his goods shipped the 1st of September, and that the chances of his being disappointed are extremely good, whatever the promises made him. This evil is one which will necessarily correct itself to some extent, but we shall never get back to the condition of affairs which existed when the dealer had to seek goods early to get them at all. The policy of the leading concerns has been shaped with a view to accommodating the dealer to the fullest extent, and encouraging procrastination on his part by the accumulation of supplies so near at hand that the delays of shipment are reduced to a minimum.

The goods prepared in anticipation of the fall trade this year are varied in quality, and so ample in quantity that there is little reason to expect a scarcity. On the other hand, we do not believe that the stocks carried over by makers will be any larger than

they should be to provide in advance for the contingencies of next year. Unless we are much mistaken, the production in the first six months of 1884 will be a good deal below that for the first half of 1883—that is, unless wages are reduced without resistance on the part of the union. This question is by no means a local issue. It is the chief topic of discussion in all the principal centers of production, and there are many indications of a disposition on the part of manufacturers to get things in good shape to handle it, in whatever form it may present itself. In view of this, a stock on the 1st of January somewhat in excess of that usually carried over would not be regarded as something to be deplored. We do not think, however, that many more stoves have been made than it was expected would be sold. Dealers are not burdened with stocks carried over, and the general situation is such as to warrant the belief that there will be a fair average original consumptive demand, and something more than an average demand for the replacement of stoves discarded or worn out in service. The average life of a stove is growing steadily shorter. This is in part due to the fact that stoves are lighter, more elaborate and less durable than they used to be; in part to the more careless management they receive at the hands of servants, and in part to the fact that buyers are attracted by new styles, which promise greater convenience and economy than old ones which have done service for years. The replacement demand is also increased by the gradual extension of the area of regular coal supplies and the increasing cost of wood in the more populous districts, and as coal stoves burn out sooner than wood stoves, they need more frequent renewal.

In the Western markets some anxiety is felt respecting the corn crop. The weather has not been quite favorable to the development of the ears, although the luxuriance of the stalks would indicate an enormous harvest if the yield per acre is estimated from a car window. A shortage in corn would be bad for general trade, and dealers in the districts in which corn is the chief product are not quite sure whether the demand for stoves will be up to or below the average. We do not, however, fear a shortage of corn. The best advice we can get warrant the prediction that the crop will reach the normal average of 1,800,000,000 bushels. Wheat, on the other hand, will be at least 100,000,000 bushels short, reducing the estimated yield to about 400,000,000 bushels. Winter wheat was mostly a failure, and this fact has cost the wheat district \$100,000,000 in round numbers. There is, however, an unusually large harvest of hay, oats and other profitable crops, and the farmers are likely to make a fair average profit. There is some uncertainty with regard to the cotton crop. In many parts of the South it is reported that the yield per acre will be considerably below an average, but it is not known how far this will be compensated by the increased acreage planted. We are of the opinion, however, that any loss of trade due to failure of crops will be felt only locally, and that the consumptive demands of the country will call for fully as many stoves as were needed last year.

The only danger which seems to threaten the trade at the moment is that some weak-kneed houses will become nervous and start a break in prices. Margins are narrow, and there is not much room for cutting unless those who may engage in the pastime feel like doing business for nothing and finding themselves. This fact will probably place a wholesome restraint upon any tendency which might develop to add lower prices to long credits as inducements to dealers, and since prices have been maintained fairly firm up to this time, it is scarcely probable they will break right at the beginning of the season of greatest activity, or at all, unless the September trade should be utterly disappointing.

In a word, the trade at large is feeling confident. Nothing like a boom is expected, but it is believed that this season's business will be as good as last year's, and that there will certainly be a chance to "make a little something," unless present appearances are deceptive and all calculations are disappointed.

A feature of no little interest as regards the strikes recently ordered by the Building Trades Union was developed in connection with the work of Contractor John J. Tucker, who now has a number of buildings under way in this city. As is generally known, the greater number of employers readily yielded to the demands of the strikers, and at the time of our last writing we had not heard of a decided stand being taken against the dictation of the union. Mr. Tucker's refusal to recognize any distinction between union and non-union men must, therefore, meet with general approval, and further developments in the contest will undoubtedly be pursued with much interest. In conversation with a reporter of one of the daily papers, Mr. Tucker said: "I employ both union and non-union men, and I recognize no distinction between them. When they are doing my work they must obey my rules, and not those of any outside organization. I shall, so far as possible, employ non-union men in the place of those who have struck, and if I should not be able to do my work with such men it will go undone until the union men come to their senses." The fact that the work now being carried on by Mr. Tucker

is of no little magnitude adds considerably to the importance of the movement. The strikers, it appears, are confident of gaining their point, and as it is thought that the future of the amalgamation of the building trades hinges on the present struggle, it is more than probable that both sides will spare no efforts calculated to bring about a successful issue. As it is, the activity now prevailing in the building trades is strongly in favor of the men, and the final result depends simply upon the length of time that employers can afford to have their work delayed.

Statistical Position of British Pig Iron.

We have the latest report of the British Iron Trade Association, which contains some statistics of interest. The following table shows the make of pig iron in Great Britain during the first half of 1883, as compared with that for the first half and second half of 1882, in tons:

|                           | First half 1882. | Second half 1882. | First half 1883. |
|---------------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| Cleveland                 | 1,332,543        | 1,356,107         | 1,373,817        |
| West Cumberland           | 556,000          | 569,400           | 570,000          |
| South Wales               | 472,038          | 529,143           | 411,647          |
| Lancashire                | 476,516          | 408,769           | 405,103          |
| Derbyshire and Nottingham | 302,668          | 390,971           | 345,019          |
| South Staffordshire       | 228,653          | 217,082           | 194,212          |
| North Staffordshire       | 190,441          | 268,001           | 189,000          |
| West and South Yorkshire  | 157,386          | 159,731           | 146,021          |
| Lincolnshire              | 111,006          | 128,157           | 141,000          |
| Northamptonshire          | 102,861          | 98,700            | 108,118          |
| Shropshire                | 97,475           | 101,640           | 111,611          |
| North Wales               | 39,275           | 41,000            | 37,310           |
| Gloucestershire, &c.      | 24,000           | 23,000            | 21,100           |
| Totals                    | 4,241,245        | 4,253,048         | 4,138,223        |

The reduction of the pig-iron make has not been as great as we should have expected, considering the amount of discussion to which it has given rise. The statistical position of pig iron is not, however, as unsatisfactory as may have been expected. The following table shows the stocks of pig iron in makers' hands and warrant stores, June 30, 1883, compared with that on June 30 and December 31, 1882:

|                           | June 30, 1882. | Dec. 31, 1882. | June 30, 1883. |
|---------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Cleveland                 | 338,571        | 266,179        | 275,094        |
| West Cumberland           | 636,537        | 667,960        | 584,404        |
| South Wales               | 57,821         | 78,519         | 73,213         |
| Lancashire                | 90,671         | 8,200          | 60,480         |
| South Staffordshire       | 40,573         | 38,802         | 67,500         |
| North Staffordshire       | 42,851         | 47,593         | 36,487         |
| Derbyshire and Nottingham | 20,681         | 37,377         | 22,299         |
| South and West Yorkshire  | 59,635         | 54,180         | 45,000         |
| Northamptonshire          | 15,466         | 18,780         | 24,000         |
| Lincolnshire              | 12,803         | 60,218         | 19,000         |
| Shropshire                | 18,900         | 21,400         | 21,000         |
| North Wales               | 2,437          | 3,740          | 2,291          |
| Gloucestershire, &c.      | 5,340          | 4,200          | 1,400          |
| Totals                    | 1,374,769      | 1,368,854      | 1,315,771      |

\* Stock in warrant stores only, makers' stocks at June 30 being unknown.

The following is a recapitulation of the statistics showing consumption:

|  | Tons.     |
|--|-----------|
| Stock of pig iron on December 31, 1882               | 1,368,854 |
| Production of pig iron during the first half of 1883 | 4,138,223 |
| Total  | 5,507,077 |
| Deduct stock at June 30, 1883                        | 1,315,771 |
| Total consumption of pig iron to June 30, 1883       | 4,191,304 |
| Being at the rate, per annum, of                     | 8,382,608 |
| Against an actual consumption in 1882 of             | 8,450,615 |

Showing a decrease of 68,007 tons. \* Makers' stock in Scotland not included, being unknown.

A decrease in the estimated consumptive demand of 270,047 tons is alone proportionate to the decrease of 103,020 in the make for the first six months of the year.

Prospects in the Copper Market.

Copper is at present in a position deserving attention, and to some extent has begun to attract it, from the fact that considerable speculation has of late been going on in England, where a few large operators have secured the control of Chili bars. As American copper has been more extensively exported to Europe this year than ever before, the position of our market is of as much interest to the metal trade in Europe as it is to ourselves, and there is no doubt that our market for the remainder of the year will be greatly influenced by the course of prices in Western Europe. Under date of June 28, a correspondent in Liverpool, a large receiver on consignment of American copper and ores, wrote to us as follows: "An increased production of about 7000 tons fine was required to keep up stocks in England and France at the end of this year, and to the level at which they were at the commencement of it, assuming consumption to be the same this year. As far as I can, however, at present judge, this deficiency will be more than made up by the imports from the United States, say, 7000 tons into England and 4000 tons into France over last year's supply from thence."

The export from the United States, reduced to fine copper, to England and France last year will, by reference to the official figures, be found to have been 3000 tons, all told; adding thereto the 11,000 tons expected by our correspondent, this would give the two countries named jointly this year an American supply of 14,000 tons. We estimated this year's export to all quarters in our metal report of August 30 at 19,000 tons, between copper, ore and cartridges, the latter being put at 1000 tons. After deducting a couple of thousand tons taken and to be taken by European countries outside of England and France, and the 1000 tons cartridges going to China, &c., England and France would take, according to that estimate, 16,000 tons, instead of 14,000, unless during the last four months of the current year either a decline in Europe or an advance here causes a decrease in the total.



This will suffice to show the importance attaching to the course of prices in Europe and here during the remainder of 1883. Should the Chili-bar speculation in England prove a final success—that is to say, if it causes an advance in value, or at least if the metal remain at its present figure—we should require quite an improvement in prices here to materially curtail the 19,000-ton estimate. Whether Europe will remain steady, or even advance, it is impossible to say, as it depends on the money market and other contingencies, the strength of the speculative holders, &c., but we can form some judgment as to the probable statistical position here at the end of the current year if we ship the entire quantity alluded to.

We assumed in our estimate of August 30 that on January 1, 1883, the stock on this side was 10,000 tons, and that the joint product this year would prove to be 46,000 tons, making an aggregate supply of 56,000 tons to be dealt with. From this we deducted 19,000 tons of probable export and 32,000 tons of probable consumption—together, 51,000 tons—which would leave a stock of only 5000 tons at the close of 1883. We say "only," because it would not suffice to carry us to the opening of navigation early next summer; and we gave it as our opinion that, if the facts should verify these calculations, there would not unlikely be an upward tendency in the copper markets on this side in anticipation, even without the aid of the speculative element. Should the latter co-operate, the advance would be all the more rapid and important. If, then, the stock—that is, the available supply—on January 1, 1884, does not suffice for our future requirements, the price may by that time be high enough to attract copper from Lake Superior by rail this way, as well as to other localities that may need it. As we before stated, prices in Europe will have a direct influence here in the interval. It will be seen, therefore, that the copper situation is rather complicated—more so than at any previous time in our recollection. Copper was never so cheap, and, therefore, never before deserved so much notice from capitalists. At its present price it may be considered to have arrived at its intrinsic value on an average—even slightly below it—and an imperishable article, easily stored and of large consumption, when in a position like the one we have endeavored to explain, seldom goes begging a long time in an active country like ours.

#### Foreign Export Markets.

The Argentine Republic is among the most prosperous of South American States, and the encouragement given to European immigration may be said to be the secret of her success. The dispersion of thousands of Italian settlers through the agricultural sections of the country has greatly enhanced the value of tillable lands, not only by augmenting their assessed valuation, but by increasing enormously the quantity of exportable products. For some reason not yet fully explained, the first half of the present year, in comparison with the first six months in 1882, does not afford a favorable comparison, so far as the foreign commerce of the Republic is concerned. Taking the trade figures of the Province of Buenos Ayres for the half year, we have the following:

|              | 1882.        | 1883.        |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Imports..... | \$23,295,000 | \$30,246,000 |
| Exports..... | 25,592,000   | 24,983,000   |
| Total.....   | \$51,887,000 | \$55,229,000 |

The disproportion of imports here observed is easily accounted for by the demands for railway materials of foreign manufactures which are required in improving the means of internal communication. And as regards the decline in exports, it is probable that labor has been diverted temporarily from grain growing and cattle grazing to the more pressing work of railroad construction. What the United States is doing for Mexico has a close parallel in the development of the Argentine Republic through British enterprise. With her frequent steamship connections and abundant capital—all made auxiliary to her plans for commercial aggrandizement—England is securing for herself and gradually enlarging the field for successful traffic in the Occident, no less than in the Orient. Meanwhile, what can be said of the progress making by the merchants of the United States in securing distant markets? When the foreign field is fully in possession of rivals, any subsequent revival of our merchant marine will not speedily lead to the displacement of European traders and manufacturers already in possession. It is true now, as of old, that "while the husbandman slept, the enemy came and sowed tares."

Notwithstanding the "enormous advantage of free trade" in their favor, the British steel-rail makers do not seem to be any more prosperous and happy than their unfortunate American competitors. They, too, have had a "break" in the market. Cammel & Co. have booked no orders on Indian account for some time, and other English firms have failed to secure business, even at the extremely low prices they are said to have offered. It is a matter of some uncertainty whether steel rails have actually declined to £4, but whether or not this figure has been reached, it is not far from the actual selling price. It is asserted that even the most favorably situated manufacturers are making no money on rails at £5 per ton, and on the basis of present quotations the business cannot be said to be an inviting one. Now,

the persistent advocates of a free-trade policy in this country will of course argue that, if it were not for what remains of the duty on steel rails, the wants of our railroads could be met with rails at \$20, and the difference between that figure and the price asked here would be saved to the consumer; but when we come to look into the reason for the low prices now prevailing abroad, we find that this assumption is not warranted. The *Iron-monger*, in explaining the situation in the rail market, says: "For some years past our best customer for these articles has been the United States, but the country has fallen away to an enormous extent of late as a buyer of rails, owing to the fact that railway construction has not been so energetically carried on, besides which the producing powers of the native mills has been so greatly enlarged that they are more than equal to any demand that may be made upon them. Prices have fallen to \$36 and \$38 per ton, at which figures our rail manufacturers are unable to compete with success, save on the Pacific Coast and at certain points in the South." Restore the American market to the British steel-rail makers, and the result would be an immediate advance which would bring the cost to the consumer above what he now has to pay. Protection in the United States is the worst possible policy—for England.

#### Freight Transportation.

The commercial supremacy of New York as an American seaport is again assured, if, indeed, its position in this respect was ever seriously threatened. Neither the Welland Canal and St. Lawrence River, nor the Mississippi River, with its huge fleets of steam barges, are successful rivals. The experience of the last few months under the free-canal system shows this to be true, and it is well to make a note of it. The people of the Canadian Dominion believed in the possibility of superseding De Witt Clinton's "ditch" as a highway for transportation between the Northern Lakes and the Atlantic, and expended millions of public money in the expectation of diverting traffic to the St. Lawrence. Since the opening of navigation last spring they have waited in vain to witness the triumph of their grand system of internal improvements completed at so great a cost. The action of the New York State Legislature in declaring the Erie Canal free of tolls seems to have been fatal to their hopes in this respect. At least, it would appear that nothing short of corresponding action on their part in regard to the St. Lawrence route can relieve Canada's lake commerce from its present stagnant condition. Until some such course is taken relief seems hardly possible. Meanwhile business on the Erie Canal is booming, perhaps as never before. A recent official report showed that nearly 2,000,000 tons of freight had been transported by that route since the opening of navigation, or an excess of about 200,000 tons compared with 1882, and during the week just closed the clearances from Buffalo were far larger than during any previous week this season. At the same time, it is observed that traffic on the Welland Canal is below the usual average. No less significant is the reduction of charges by competing railway lines. These were placed at a disadvantage by the addition of newly finished lines, all alike struggling for a share in Western business. But the people of New York State and of the country at large take satisfaction in knowing that the so-called "monopolists" are constrained to recognize the existence of a regulator in freight transportation.

The *Tribune*, discussing the explosion which last week sent the steamer *Riverdale* to the bottom, says: "The trouble is that the elaborate legal regulations for the inspection of hulls and boilers and for the licensing of captains and pilots, and the determination of the number of passengers each steamer shall carry, are not sufficient to guard against danger. Something is needed to determine the qualifications of the men intrusted with human lives. There is an enormous amount of travel on the waters of New York, and all sorts of boats are used and all sorts of men are intrusted with the management of them. Perhaps, under the circumstances, we have reason to be thankful that we escape with 'so few accidents.' In our judgment the trouble is that by its elaborate regulations, inspections, licenses, &c., the Government assumes so large a share of the responsibility for the safety of life in steamboats that individual owners, by a perfunctory compliance with the letter of the law, can evade any personal accountability in case of accident. If the Government could insure safety, its present system would be well enough, but it cannot, and no further complication of the law would secure this result. It would be much better and simpler to abolish the whole business, and substitute a code of laws defining the measure of responsibility assumed by owners of boats licensed to carry passengers, and then leave them free to adopt such measures of safety as they saw fit. Under such circumstances, there could be no dodging behind inspection certificates when boats burn or boilers explode. The owners of a boat would not run the risks they now assume with impunity if the consequences to themselves, in the event of fatal accident, were the confiscation of their property and imprisonment for terms of years proportioned to the gravity of their offense. One conviction and exemplary sentence under such a law would settle the whole

business, and send to the junk yards forthwith a score of old tubs which are now sailing under a full complement of United States certificates. A sharp definition of the individual responsibility of steamboat owners is all that is needed, and each one might then be left to seek safety by the means best calculated to secure it. The owners and officers of boats know a good deal more about them than inspectors are likely to find out, and those whose boats are unsafe dread nothing so much as having to assume a personal responsibility for the safety of the passengers they carry. The present law suits them vastly better.

At intervals which are altogether too frequent the railroads of the country seem to be attacked with an epidemic of accidents of an unforeseen or unexpected character. Just at the present time one of these epidemics is apparently prevailing, and we have a series of accidents which are not likely to be soon repeated. We speak of these accidents as unexpected or unforeseen, and yet in some cases proper precautions would have diminished their severity very materially. We have known of cases where, in the center of a large plain, a railway has been undermined and trains delayed on account of a washout, the sandy loam going down in a culvert and leaving the track unsupported for a long distance. Such an accident as this was to a certain extent unexpected, yet it might have been foreseen that so large a drainage area would furnish a great volume of water in a sharp shower, and some provision ought to have been taken for carrying it off without endangering the road-bed by so doing. When one train gently smashes into the rear of another, and bursts open a freight car, the accident is hardly worth a place in the accidents of the year; but in a recent instance the freight car which was struck by the engine happened to be loaded with gunpowder. The explosion was so terrific that it is a wonder any persons were left to tell the tale. Naturally, railroad men will not look forward to a similar accident in the immediate future. The last one that at all resembled it was the nitro-glycerine explosion at Worcester, Mass., but in this case it was supposed that the leaky cans let the nitro-glycerine fall upon the track, and the shock of the wheels exploded it. This, in turn, fired that in the cars.

It seems that another attempt is to be made to put the Great Eastern into a paying commercial work. This time she is to be converted into a collier, and it is supposed she can carry some 20,000 tons of coal. One of the scientific papers commends this, and speaks of the Great Eastern as having been a mechanical success, but a mercantile failure, and attributes her bad fortune to her immense size and unwieldiness. The trouble with the Great Eastern, we think, has been all along that she was a mechanical and engineering failure. At the present time there is little doubt that a strong, swift ship of her tonnage could be made practically useful in the Atlantic trade. The Great Eastern is strong, but she is also slow. She is provided with engines of an obsolete pattern, and from an engineering point of view must be considered an abortion, in that she has both paddle-wheels and a propeller. Scott Russell's statements in regard to the vessel and his enunciation of the wave-line theory are at variance. Apparently he thought she ought to make a speed of 20 miles per hour or more, yet one would hardly expect any such speed from a vessel with such a bluff bow. The history of her career has been a chapter of mechanical accidents and failure. Once the great ship was saved by the pluck and ready skill of an American engineer. Several times she has been saved only by her immense strength. Her draft of water has always been too great to admit of her taking part in the world's commerce. If they keep her in the coal trade one coal mine will certainly be required to supply her with fuel, and she will have to select those ports where great draft of water can be had.

The Senate Committee who are looking into the subject of labor are compelled to listen to an immense amount of nonsense in the way of testimony. This cannot be avoided, of course, but it is unfortunate that the time of the committee should be taken up in listening to the lurid prophecies of communists, who predict revolution and destruction if some vague and impracticable "concession" is not made to the "demands" of labor, which have never been specifically formulated. The professional agitators who delight in this kind of talk are as much out of their element in this country as fishes on land. They have a certain local influence in the neighborhood of Tompkins Square, and could, probably, by concerted action, organize a riot in that part of New York, but they claim the attention of the police rather than of the Senate Committee. They are in no sense representatives of labor, and are not entitled to speak for the class of workmen who are of any use to the country.

In its present shape Mr. Keely's "motor" must be a very interesting and curious machine. Mr. Schuellerman, secretary of the company, says of it: "The machine will first be used as a stationary engine. It will then be used as a locomotive. The machine will be placed on a truck, but as a locomotive engine its movements are entirely different from those of a stationary engine." The movements of a loco-

motive are usually quite different from those of a stationary engine, but a machine which combines both movements and which can be used interchangeably must contain several patentable features of novelty.

Speaking of Mr. Robert P. Porter's contributions to the *New York Tribune* on the subjects of "Industrial England" and "Industrial Germany," a London trade paper which should undoubtedly be much better informed remarks that "One fact is sometimes worth a long argument. How is it that such enormous numbers of Germans leave their happy land and cross over to America, while so few Englishmen (comparatively) emigrate to the United States. The answer is that Mr. Porter's reports are documents manufactured to order for his employers—protectionists in America." The correct answer, if the paper in question cared to be candid in the matter, was given by Mr. Porter some time ago, and has since been printed over and over again in response to similar inquiries. The remarks above quoted, therefore, either betray a lamentable lack of information on current topics, or a willful perversion of the truth. The assertion that "the working classes in this country (England) can, if they will, surround themselves with comforts and luxuries which the Germans cannot even aspire to," lacks all foundation, and it would, indeed, be surprising that the English workman should live in such destitute circumstances simply because an improved condition offers no attractions.

The crop of elevator accidents is turning out well this season. In both quality and quantity it is all that could be asked for by the most sanguinary individual. The last one that comes to our notice is one of those runaway elevators which had a habit of starting off on its own account, and traveling up or down, as the case might be. A green elevator boy was in charge, and instead of waiting until the car had passed, and handling the rope from below in a place of safety, he sprang half-way into the car and seized the rope just in time to be crushed between the bottom of the car and the top of the door. The number of accidents from poor elevators and green attendants, it is likely, will be constantly increasing. The reason for this increase is to be found in the fact that the number of elevators in use is much larger now than ever before, and these elevators, as they wear, are becoming more and more liable to accident. In many places, when an elevator is put up, the feeling in regard to it seems very much like that of putting in a window, a foundation or a door. It is something that has been done for all time, and no more attention needs to be paid to it. The remedy will come when a sufficient number of people have been killed and public opinion is thoroughly aroused on the subject of making elevators safe.

#### SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL.

##### A Constant Current Battery Cell.

According to *La Nature*, a constant current battery cell was devised by Dr. E. Obach while conducting experiments to furnish a constant current of long duration. It is described as a Bunsen battery, employing zinc, water acidulated with sulphuric acid, and so arranged as to secure a continuous renewal of the liquids. The internal resistance of each element is, on an average, .07 ohm, and the electro-motive force is 2.09 volts. It is able to furnish nearly 30 amperes in a short circuit, and consists of a jar some 8 inches in height and 5 inches in diameter, placed in an inverted position over a support, the bottom having been replaced by a wooden cap covered with paraffine. A porous earthenware vessel introduced with this jar is held in place by a cork ring, and is about 9½ inches in height and has an internal diameter of 2½ inches. The choice of the porous vessel is very important, and the proper working of the element depends much upon the quality of it. Those employed by Dr. Obach became entirely saturated one minute after having been filled with water, this giving the measure of their porosity. The porous vessel is closed with a cork saturated with paraffine and traversed by a carbon. This latter, which is retort carbon, is 9 inches long by 1½ in diameter, and contains in its center an aperture 6 inches in diameter and 7 inches in length. In its upper part there is a series of small radiating holes, and a glass tube whose upper extremity is funnel-shaped reaches its summit and traverses the porous vessel as well as the cap of the jar. The bottom of the porous vessel is paraffined, as is also its upper edge and the head of the carbon. A gutta-percha ring resting upon the bottom of the jar forms a channel which is filled with mercury, and into this dips the lower part of a zinc cylinder some 6½ inches long, 2½ inches in diameter, and weighing about 4½ pounds. Through the cork closing the lower part of the jar pass two tubes, and through the wooden cover two funnel tubes, one of which terminates in the upper part of the zinc vessel, while the other runs to the bottom of the porous vessel. Nitric acid reaches the bottom of the latter by means of this tube, and, rising, flows off through the radiating holes in the carbon. The water containing sulphuric acid enters, on the contrary, through the tube communicating with the zinc compartment, and being rendered denser through the formation of zinc sulphate, flows off through a syphon tube. The level of the liquids is not very different, but that of the sulphuric acid water is a little the higher of the two in the external vessel. A section of a glass tube bent into a circle is arranged at the upper part of the liquid, where it is warmest. This tube is traversed by a current of cold water, in order to keep the liquid at a constant temperature. One of the two tubes entering

the bottom of the jar serves to empty the liquid contents, and is always kept corked when the battery is in operation. All the communications are established by mercurial contacts. The zinc cylinder is connected with a strip of copper contained in a glass tube that traverses the cover, and which dips into the mercury in the gutta-percha trough. The square end of the carbon is hollowed out and the cavity is filled with mercury, which serves to establish communication with the external circuit.

##### Calorimeter Tests for Temperatures.

In many cases where temperatures below the melting point of wrought iron are to be determined the following method will be found convenient and accurate: A small bar of iron weighing from 1 to 5 pounds is suspended in a flue or fire-box, and is allowed to take the temperature of the surrounding gases. The length of time necessary for exposure naturally varies and should be determined experimentally for any particular case. Suppose three bars of the same weight and similarly disposed in a flue are allowed to remain two and one-half minutes, five minutes and ten minutes respectively, the condition of the fire remaining practically unchanged. Then, if the resulting temperatures are substantially alike, the shorter period of time is sufficient to acquire the full temperature of the hot gas; if the two other bars only are alike in temperature, then five minutes will be sufficient. If, however, the ten-minute bar shows the greatest temperature, then further tests with ten minutes as a mean are required. In making a preliminary test the ten-minute bar should first be introduced; five minutes later the five-minute bar, and two and one-half minutes after that the last bar. In other words, the bars should leave the flue or fire-box at the same time. After having thus found the time necessary to acquire the furnace temperature, the operation consists simply in cooling down the bars (respectively) in a known weight of water, noting the temperature of the water before the bar is dropped into it, and after the bar and water have assumed the same temperature. Several bars are used only to insure greater accuracy in the result. Having reached this point we proceed as follows: Let  $w$  = weight of bar when it enters the water;  $W$  = weight of water heated;  $T$  = initial temperature of water;  $T_1$  = final temperature of water and iron;  $S$  = the specific heat of water at temperature  $T$ ;  $S_1$  = specific heat of water at temperature  $T_1$ , and  $S_2$  the specific heat of iron, which may be taken as equal to .1138. Then if we make  $R = T_1$ ,  $S_1 - T$  and  $H = \frac{WR}{w}$ , the temperature  $T_1$  of the iron bar, and, consequently, of the hot gases, is  $H + T_1$ . This method is in many cases preferred to the application of an expansion pyrometer, and for temperatures above 3000° F. platinum may be substituted for iron, the specific heat of which, according to Pouillet, is .0382.

##### A New Illuminant.

Lieutenant Diek, of the Russian Army, is said to have discovered a new illuminating substance which is capable of imparting luminous properties to objects to which it is applied. It is in the form of a powder and of three colors, green, yellow and violet, the latter being the most powerful. Water in a glass vessel is by this means converted into an illuminating fluid. In a lecture recently delivered by the inventor at the Nicolai Engineering Academy, at St. Petersburg, he explained the application of the substance to military and industrial mining operations. The illuminating power lasts for eight hours, and the powder must then be renewed. The German Government is said to have lately been making experiments with Lieutenant Diek's invention.

##### A New Fuel.

A Mexican paper gives an account of a new fuel recently brought out in the City of Mexico. The article is called "turbato," and consists principally of bog peat, of which there are immense quantities in Mexico, mixed with a proper proportion of bitumen. The fuel is made for locomotives, stationary engines, smelting purposes, smiths' fires and household purposes. It is said to burn freely and without much smoke, giving a higher dynamic equivalent of heat than the same amount of wood. It can be manufactured and sold in Mexico at a price considerably below coal or wood, and, looking at the daily increasing demand for fuel, the augmentation in the price of wood and its growing scarcity, a large and successful market is considered in store for "turbato."

##### Spontaneous Combustion of Coal.

Referring to the above subject, which has received attention at different times, it may be of interest to state that, according to authority, the spontaneous ignition is due to the presence of pyrites, which, on oxidation under suitable conditions, sets fire to the coal in which it is imbedded. According to Fayol's experiments, however, the real cause of this phenomenon is the oxidation of the coal itself and not of the pyrites. The absorption of oxygen by coal—carbon—takes place more or less readily according to the temperature and the coal being more or less finely divided. According to the *Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry, England*, lignite in the state of fine dust takes fire at 150°, gas carbon at 200°, coke at 250° and anthracite at 300° or above. On heating a mixture of finely powdered coal and pyrites to 200° for four days the coal took up 6 per cent. of oxygen, while the pyrites absorbed only 3.5 per cent. Hence coal absorbs oxygen much more energetically than pyrites, which has also been confirmed by the following experiment: About 900 grams of powdered coal and 350 grams of powdered pyrites were placed in tin cans and put in a drying chamber. Up to 135° both behaved similarly, but from there the temperature of the pyrites remained almost stationary, while that of the coal quickly rose, ignition taking place after a few hours. Two other samples of coal and pyrites were put in a chamber at 200°. The temperature of the coal quickly increased. After 40 minutes it got up to 200°, and the coal took fire, while the pyrites had at the same time only been raised to 150°. The ignition of the coal was, it is stated, not at all hastened by an admixture of pyrites.



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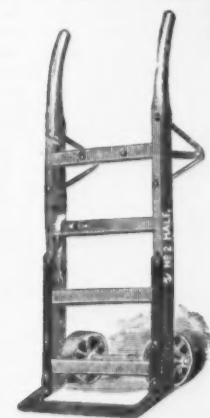
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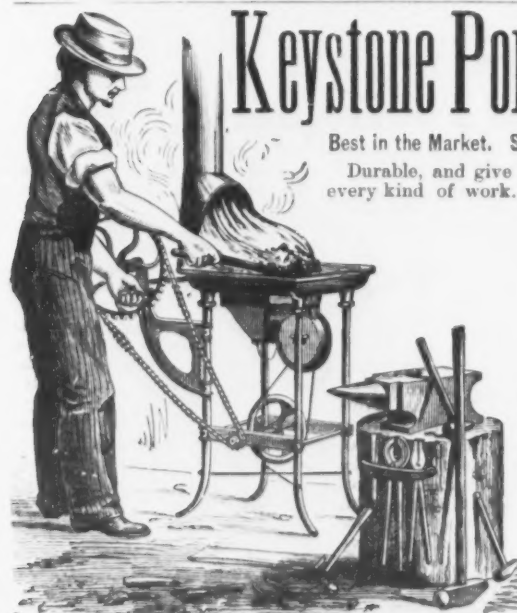
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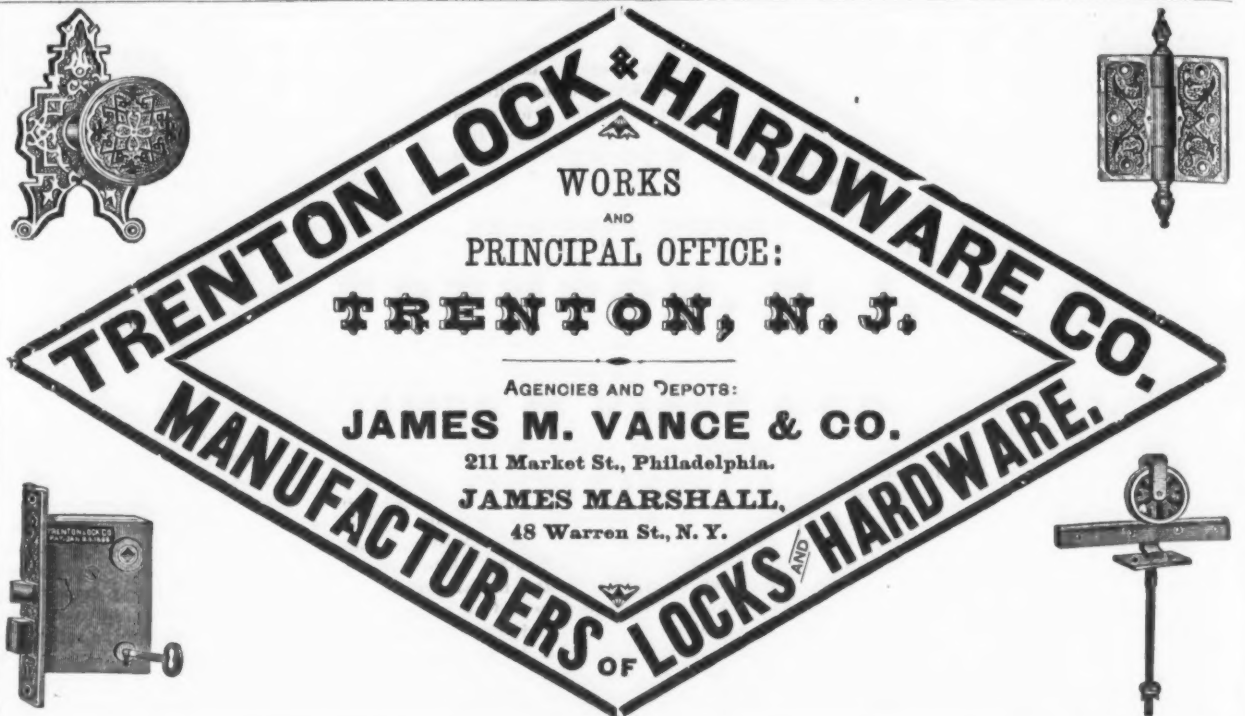
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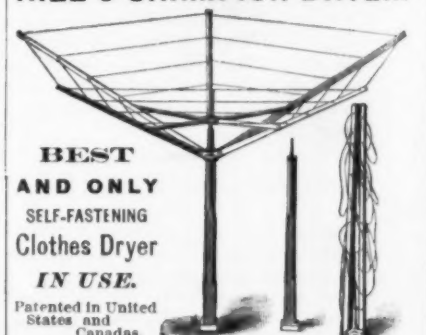
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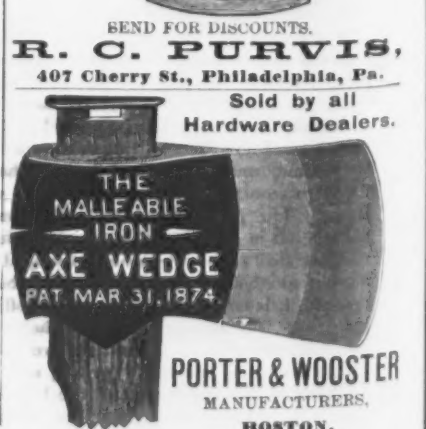
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### Bartholdi's Statue.

A foreign correspondent of one of the daily papers, referring to the Statue of Liberty for the harbor of New York, writes as follows:  
At Paris I found the papers and the people taking great interest in the reported progress of the subscriptions for the pedestal of Bartholdi's Statue of Liberty. Frenchmen had been really pained by the tardy responses of Americans on this subject. Now they are cheered when they learn there is a better prospect of raising the pedestal fund. Thinking you would like to know the actual condition of the truly great work, I visited Bartholdi's atelier. You are familiar with the figures of its dimensions. But numerals and verbal descriptions, however precise, give you no true idea of the colossal grandeur of the image. It is now all complete but the head and a part of the left arm, which holds the tablet. This headless effigy towers aloft to the height of the average New England church. I saw the workmen in the act of finishing the face. It is of imperial beauty. The expression is grave, but sweet. Even on a close view, one can grasp its subtle charm forgetful of its gigantic proportions. What say you to a woman whose lips arch in a cupid's bow 3 or 4 feet long? The coiffure or chignon which will adorn the shapely head is as big as a Broadway stage. The curls that grace her fair cheeks are of the size of barrels. Everything is on this scale of magnitude. The toe that peeps out from the hem of her flowing robe would seat three or four people. As you know, the material of the statue is pure sheet copper, about 3/4 inch thick. This is hammered into the requisite shapes for the several parts of the figure and then bolted together. At a little distance the seams and rivets do not show, the whole appearing like a solid single casting. After a little exposure to the elements the bright red copper assumes a rich dark hue far superior to that of any bronze. M. Bartholdi expects to have Liberty ready for shipment to New York in two months. The pieces, some hundreds in number, are now only hemstitched (so to say) as they are combined in his yard. They can be easily taken apart, and will be fully riveted only when they are rejoined on the summit of the pedestal which awaits its lovely mistress on Bedloe's Island.

### Cable Street Railways.

Referring to the above subject, the Chicago Railway Age remarks that as the construction of wire-cable street railways is now being agitated in a number of cities in the United States, a brief history of the cable railway, with some figures as to cost of construction and operation, will be of interest. The cable street railway is the invention of Mr. A. S. Hallie, and was first put in use by the Clay Street Hill Railroad Company, in the city of San Francisco, in the year 1873. After this line had been in operation for three and a half years the Sutter Street Railroad Company, of the same city, whose lines had been worked unprofitably for years by horses, changed from a horse road to the wire-cable system. This road, which is three miles long, is 5 feet gauge, and its greatest elevation is 167 feet above its initial point. The California Street Railroad commenced running in 1878, and that of Geary street in 1880. All of these roads have been extended since first built, so that now San Francisco has 50 miles of the cable system in operation.

Chicago was the next city to try the experiment, and she now has 20 miles of cable road, which has been successfully operated for over a year. The cable system is also in operation on the great East River Bridge, which connects the cities of New York and Brooklyn, the first trip having been made on the 18th of the past month. With this exception, Chicago and San Francisco are the only cities in the United States that have the cable system in use. A company has recently been organized in Philadelphia, for the purpose of introducing the system in that city, and the subject is being strongly agitated in other cities.

The cost of building a cable road varies from \$10,000 to \$125,000 per mile, owing to the style of construction, kind of soil, grades, &c. In Chicago it was about \$115,000 per mile. Owing to the severe winter and heavy snows, the tube in which the cable runs was made over 4 feet in depth, and the cable was placed about 30 inches above the bottom of the tube, to allow for the accumulation of light snow which might drift in through the narrow slit in the top of the tube. The foundation for the road-bed and tube was quite soft and yielding, and, consequently, needed a broad base of concrete to sustain the superstructure; hence the heavy expense of construction. In San Francisco the cost was much lighter. The cost of constructing 3 miles of road in that city was \$155,698, to which should be added \$86,020 for equipping the road. This includes engines, boilers, driving machinery, 15 cars, the same number of dummies, buildings, &c., and makes the cost of the double-track road, ready for operation, \$241,718. The expense of operating a cable road is estimated at from 50 to 60 per cent. of what it costs to operate a horse railway. The average expense of operating a horse railway 3 miles in length, double track, with a speed of 4 1/2 miles per hour, with 82 cars and headway of 2 1/2 minutes, is estimated at \$138,880 per annum, exclusive of administration of office, while the annual running expenses of a double-track cable road of the same length, with a speed of 6 miles per hour, with 24 cars and 24 dummies, leaving every 2 1/2 minutes, is only \$88,246, showing a saving of \$50,634 per annum, or 36.46 per cent.

The running expense of a cable road 3 miles in length, having 12 cars and 12 dummies, seating 44 passengers to each car and dummy, the speed being 6 miles per hour, and the headway 5 minutes, is (estimated) \$59,085, which, compared with a horse road of the same length with 32 cars, each seating 22 passengers, the speed being 4 1/2 miles per hour and the headway 2 1/2 minutes, at an estimated cost of \$138,880, shows a saving in the year's expenses of \$79,794, or 57.45 per cent. It will thus be seen that while the expense of constructing a cable road may be much heavier than that of a road to be operated by horses, the saving in the cost of operation, as compared with the horse sys-

tem, is so large that it will require no very great period of time for a cable road to pay for the difference in the cost of construction out of its increased net earnings, and the wire-cable system will, doubtless, before many years be in general use in all the large cities throughout the United States. But for small towns, where short and infrequent runs are made, and only single tracks are in use, the cable system will probably never be adopted to any great extent, because in such places the extra cost of the track and plant would not be met by the saving in running expenses.

### Reforms in the Glass Trade.

Mr. John O'Leary, who was one of the secretaries of the Window Glass Manufacturers' Convention, held in Chicago on August 29, said recently that the action of the convention in adhering to the demand for a reduction of wages was unanimous, and that every person present was determined to enforce that reduction. "In proof of this," said he, "is the fact that our entire session lasted only from 10 o'clock in the morning until 2 in the afternoon. Each member signed an agreement pledging himself not to start his factory until the conditions are complied with. The reduction of wages is not the question upon which we intend to make the main fight. The workmen will be compelled to rescind their rule under which blowers are allowed to make only 48 boxes of glass per week. The capacity of a pot is 60 boxes per week, and it costs us just as much to melt the pot out of which only 48 boxes are taken as it does to melt the pot which nets us 60 boxes. There is a considerable loss, for the glass remaining has to be taken out of the pot and returned the next day, thus making the manufacturer pay half a dozen times for melting the same glass. Another matter on which we will make a fight is the question of 'spare' pots—that is, the pots left standing full of glass by a blower who does not choose to come to work on that day. The manufacturers must pay extra for having it dipped out on the floor in order that all the pots may be given the same degree of heat the next day. These abuses must be remedied, and we are determined that they shall be remedied. The men have become so bound up by the rules of their association that we are compelled to go into a struggle with that power, and they may rest assured that we go into it to win. The reduction that we propose does not amount to more than 5 per cent., while the changes in the tariff have reduced the duty on glass 25 cents per 100 feet. We understand that it was the intention of the workmen to ask that all distinction in reference to quality be abolished; in other words, that we be made to pay as much for second-rate glass as we do for the best. We must have the power of the association restricted, or the members must become more reasonable. The entire body of glass manufacturers are fully determined to have a change made in many usages about the factories. We meet the workmen again on September 20, and if they do not accept our terms by that time, then comes foreign labor, as we can do nothing else." The workmen laugh at the foreign labor threat. They say it has been tried before and has proved a very expensive failure. No person expects anything now but a long strike. The last battle, several years ago, lasted more than 12 months.

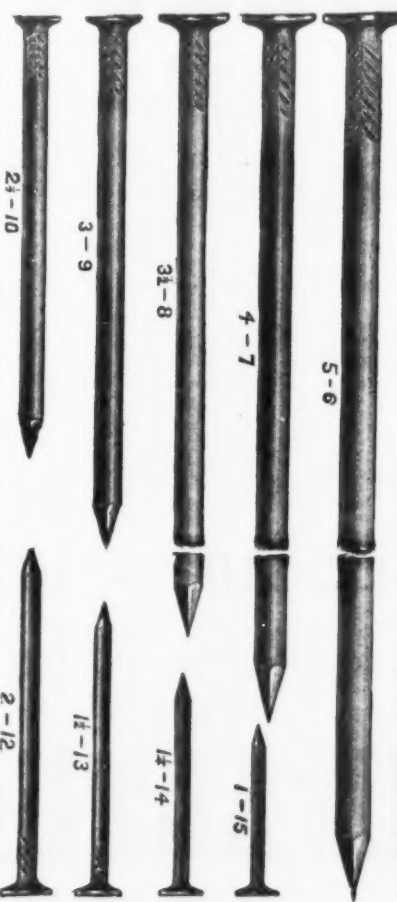
The London Mining Journal directs attention to an unusual occurrence which recently took place at a colliery during a thunderstorm. "The electric fluid," says our contemporary, "seemed to strike the west winding rope of the west shaft in its elevated position upon the pulley. One current passed down into the winding engine-house, where it was seen to flash up and down the feed pump below the level of the floor, and quite illuminated the place at the time; another current passed down the rope to the bottom of the shaft, a depth of 35 fathoms, striking the cage, which fortunately was standing upon the bottom at the time, a ball of fire falling upon the iron flat sheets at the bottom. The shaft is fitted up with round wire rope guides for two cages; these guides are suspended from the top of the pulley frames or head gearing, and secured at the bottom by heavily-weighted levers. These iron rope guides would probably act as lightning conductors and thus lessen the shock of any excess of electric fluid by carrying it off into the sump. Had the cages been running in the shaft at the time, and the shaft fitted up with the usual wooden guides, serious damage might have been caused."

Official advices from Mr. Foote, the newly-appointed United States Minister to Corea, state that he has taken up his residence in the capital of that little known country, but that life there is attended with many discomforts and privations. The only house he has been able to obtain is a rude one of wood and paper, with paper windows, and is situated in an undesirable location, in the midst of hovels and filth. The climate is one marked by great extremes of heat and cold, and everything in the shape of food, except the simplest necessities of life, has to be brought from abroad.

The Sultan of Turkey is defeated in a suit brought against the Providence Tool Company, designed to recover the value of about 50,000 rifles manufactured on the order of the Turkish Government, but never delivered, on account of some alleged failure in payment. The case was argued before Judge Blatchford, of the United States Court, in June last. Upon an application for an injunction to compel the company to fulfill its contract, and to prohibit it from disposing of the rifles to any one else, the injunction was denied and the restraining order was vacated.

The annual report from the Fourth Lighthouse District, including parts of New Jersey, Delaware and Maryland, announces that the new lighthouse on Fourteen Foot Bank will stand in from 20 to 22 feet of water at low tide. The design is for a cast-iron cylinder, 35 feet in diameter, sunk not to exceed 23 feet into the sand, and rising 30 feet above low water, to be surrounded by an iron structure giving room for a keeper's dwelling and a steam fog signal. It is expected that the lighthouse will be completed during the coming season.

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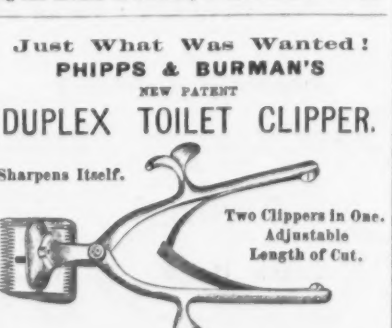
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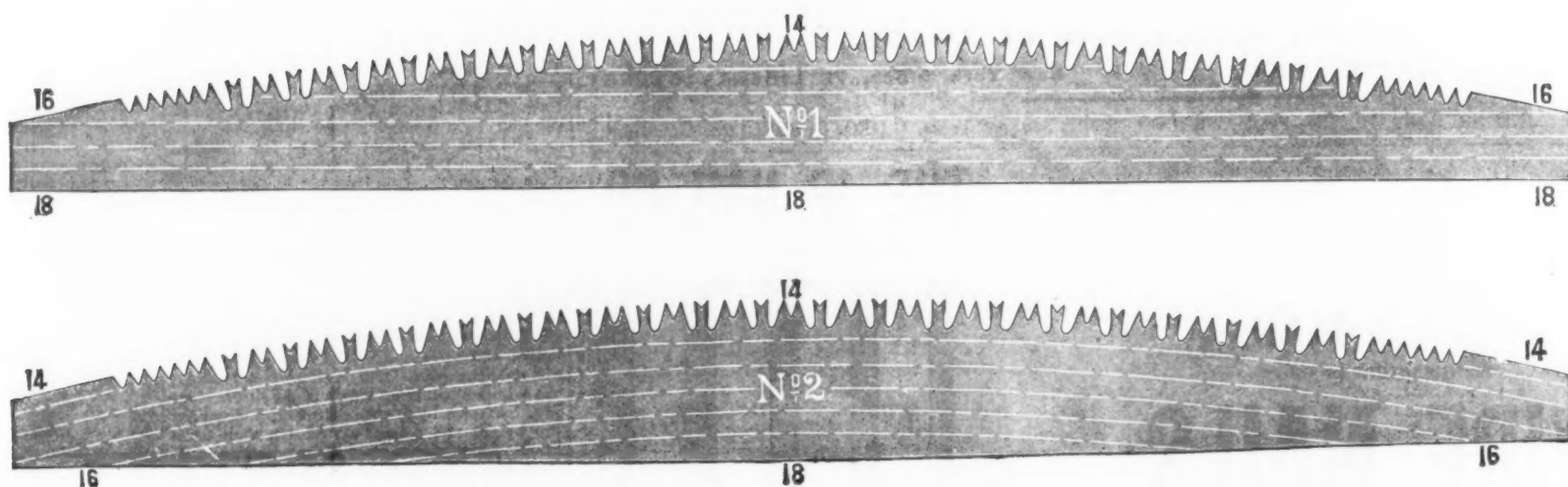
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## Mechanical Puddling.\*

BY J. G. DANKS.

My purpose in this paper is not to treat on the science of puddling generally, but merely to sketch the history of mechanical puddling, the difficulties encountered, and the manner in which they have been overcome. It is necessary first to describe briefly the old or hand system of puddling, as it may assist in understanding the difficulties to be met in performing the work by machinery. Puddling is the process in most general use for converting cast into wrought iron, by first melting, and then agitating the metal while kept at a high temperature, in which operation it is deprived of its carbon, silicon and other impurities.

The process was first introduced by Henry Cort, in England, in the year 1780. In partnership with Samuel Jellico, at Fontley, in Southampton, he worked out this problem, which was at that time the most important step ever taken toward increasing the quantity and reducing the cost of manufacturing iron. A reverberatory furnace was used, which consisted of a fire-grate, puddling chamber and flue, covered with a fire-brick roof, and separated from each other by bridge walls, which, though high enough to confine the iron and fuel in their respective chambers, allowed a free passage of the burning gases from the fire-grate to the puddling chamber, and thence through the flue to the chimney proper, provided with a damper by which the puddler controlled the temperature of the furnace, and, to some extent, the character of the flame. The bottom and sides of the puddling chamber in Cort's furnace were lined with sand, and, as the removal of silicon is one of the chief objects of the puddling process, it will be readily seen that one of Cort's worst enemies (sand) was present at all stages of the operation. Notwithstanding this, the advantage of his invention to the manufacturing interests of England may be partly seen by the following figures: The total amount of iron manufactured in 1720 was about 12,000 tons, and at the time of Cort's patent—1780—about 90,000 tons, which in 1820 had increased to 400,000 tons, an increase due almost exclusively to Cort's invention. Although he had added millions of pounds sterling to the wealth of the Kingdom, and opened the way for the employment of hundreds of thousands of men, the only recognition his services received was the empty honor of being a great inventor and the little estate now occupied by his moldering remains in Hampstead churchyard.

The first important improvement subsequently made in puddling was the invention of Samuel B. Rogers, consisting in the substitution of iron plating to the bottom and sides of the puddling chamber, covered to a depth of 10 or 12 inches with a rich oxide of iron, instead of sand. The plates are so constructed as to allow a free circulation of air, to prevent overheating. This oxide bottom not only permits the working of the iron at a much higher temperature than was possible on the sand bottom, but is itself a valuable agent in the removal of the carbon, silicon, phosphorus and other impurities contained in the crude metal. The invention of Rogers was fully as important to the trade as that of Cort, yet the most substantial benefit we hear of his receiving was the nickname of "Old Iron Bottom," by which he was known all over England. But little change has taken place in the process of puddling by hand since the latter invention was introduced, and, although it is, in a scientific point of view, one of the most interesting operations in iron manufacture, it is also the most slavish and exhaustive labor to those engaged in it.

The earliest authentic records I find on mechanical puddling are the patents of Mr. Walker and Mr. Warren, of England, who, in the year 1853, took out a patent for a rotating cylinder lined with fire-brick. The axis of the cylinder was inclined to a horizontal axis of rotation, so that, as it revolved, the fluid metal was caused to flow from one end to the other. I am not aware that they ever built a furnace so as to test their ideas in practice. In 1856, Mr. Samuel Danks (the writer's father) filed a caveat in the United States Patent Office for a revolving puddling furnace, and he had a furnace nearly completed in Mount Savage, Md., when the panic of 1857 caused the abandonment of the work for the time. In 1859, Mr. W. Tooth, of London, England, took out patents for a mechanical puddling furnace, and was given every facility for testing the apparatus by Mr. William Menelaus, of the Dowlais Iron Works, in Wales, where a complete forge was erected, and some good iron is said to have been produced. The lining used in these furnaces was either fire-brick or gannister, and Mr. Menelaus stated that the latter was found to be the best material he had tried. In 1863, Mr. Tooth and a Mr. Yates obtained additional patents for improvements in the process, all of which were tested at the Dowlais Works. In 1867, after having spent upward of \$150,000 in experimenting, it was abandoned. Mr. Menelaus, in a paper read before the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, gave a description of their failures, which were mainly due to the want of a good lining for the puddling chamber. Afterward, when showing a number of prominent ironmasters through the Dowlais Works, he pointed to the corner occupied by these furnaces as the "burying ground of mechanical puddling."

It is important to notice that up to this time the only lining used in mechanical puddling was a highly-silicious one (like that used by Mr. Cort in the first introduction of hand puddling), which would be readily dissolved by the molten metal and the oxides with which it was constantly coming in contact. Under these circumstances it was found to be practically impossible to remove the impurities from the metal sufficiently to insure a good fibrous iron. Nor was this all; the character of the lining material was such that, when the iron was formed into a ball, its weight constantly broke the lining down, so that it was proved to be unfit to withstand either the chemical or the mechanical action to which it was of necessity subjected. An attempt was made to use

an oxide-of-iron lining in the cylinder, but, from the manner in which it was poured in, it was evidently an oxide too high in silica for the purpose; or, if an oxide of sufficient purity were melted upon an initial lining of silica, sufficient of the latter would be dissolved during the melting to render it worthless. During the time when these experiments were being carried on in England (between 1863 and 1868), Mr. Danks moved to Cincinnati, Ohio, to remodel the old merchant mill on East Front street, and adapt it to the manufacture of iron rails. Here he again revived the question of mechanical puddling, and had obtained patents for a lining which, it was believed, would answer successfully all the requirements of use.

In May, 1868, a small experimental furnace was built, with a capacity of working only about 300 pounds of iron at one charge, being thus limited by the machinery at hand to deal with the iron. Six hand-puddling furnaces were in use in the mill at this time, with the usual complement of workmen, and while the new furnace was approaching completion the comments made by those engaged in the hand process were not encouraging, for they were, with few exceptions, opposed to any attempts to perform their labor by machinery. Briefly, the new furnace consisted, first, of a fireplace about 4 feet square, the outer shell of which was made of iron plates lined with fire-brick. Adjacent to this was the revolving cylinder, about 3 feet long and 4 feet in diameter, with a contracted opening at each end. One end of the cylinder was made to fit close against the fireplace, and the other end provided with an adjustable elbow-piece, forming a tight joint with the cylinder end, and also serving as a connection between the cylinder and the chimney by which the waste gases escaped. The cylinder was mounted on four rollers, the end joints kept tight by a strong iron prop which forced against the shiftable elbow-piece, the latter being also provided with a side prop holding it firmly in position while the furnace was at work. The cylinder ends were kept cool by jets of water. The bridge casting, the bridge and door rings, also the front of the shiftable piece, were kept cool by water circulating through them. The fireplace was provided with a bridge-wall reaching half-way up the opening in the cylinder end, to prevent a mixture of the fuel and iron, but leaving a free passage for the gases through the furnace. The fire-grate was also provided with two blast-pipes, respectively for forcing air underneath and over the fire. The bottom blast entered the ash-pit and found its way up through the burning fuel. The top blast entered an air-space formed over the roof of the furnace, and was admitted to the furnace proper through a finely perforated brick arch, as nearly over the bridge-wall as possible. Each blast-pipe was provided with a valve, under the control of the puddler.

The advantages of forced blast in this form of furnace are many; chief among them are, first, a higher temperature than can be obtained by natural draft; and, second, that a slight pressure of flame may be kept in the furnace, which prevents the entrance of cold air at the cylinder joints, thereby avoiding not only a reduction of the temperature of the furnace, but a waste of iron by oxidation. The cylinder plates were ribbed on the inside, so as to hold the lining, and the machine was rotated by a small steam engine. When everything else was ready, and the cylinder revolved a number of times, the lining was put in. This was done by first mixing pulverized iron Mountain ore into a stiff mortar with about six times its bulk of thick lime-cream in a grinding mill consisting of a revolving pan and two heavy iron rollers, and with this material covering the ribs of the cylinder plates to the depth of 1 inch, making an average thickness between the ribs of 4 or 5 inches. The lower half of the cylinder was first lined, a good surface being put on it with a trowel, and the whole was then thoroughly dried by building upon it a wood fire. The cylinder was then turned a half revolution and the lining completed and dried. This was called the initial lining, and was only used to protect the plates while the real or working lining was put in. The furnace being now fired up slowly, a quantity of roll-scale or hammer-slag was first melted, so as thoroughly to glaze the initial lining. A large quantity of pulverized ore and some light wrought scrap were now put into the cylinder and melted, the cylinder having been revolved slowly during the melting. After melting, the rotation was stopped and a quantity of dry lumps of ore thrown into the bath, serving the double purpose of presenting a rough surface to assist in agitating the iron, and also to hasten the cooling of the liquid oxide. After hardening sufficiently, a further quantity of ore and scrap was thrown in and melted—this operation being repeated about five times usually completes the lining. The vitreous coating thus formed is very hard, and I never knew of its breaking down after once being cooled, except at the openings at the ends of the cylinder, where it is thin. The lining gradually wears away, but it is easily repaired, and the entire lining need never be taken out unless for some necessary repairs to the plates.

When the furnace was put to the test of puddling iron, the ridicule so lavishly heaped upon it by the men ceased, a lively competition ensued, and it became evident that they had laughed too soon, for the machine had not been in operation many days before it produced seven charges of iron in less time than they could produce six by hand, and required less than one-fourth the amount of manual labor, although employing the same number of men. The quality of the iron was found to be superior in every respect to that made by hand. This furnace was experimented with for some time, and then, with the view of puddling larger heats and still utilizing the old machinery, two larger ones were built, in which the diameter of the cylinders was about the same, but the length increased to about 6 feet, it being the intention to divide the charge into two or more balls. This was attempted by leaving apertures in the cylinder plates, through which pieces of soapstone or other refractory material could be inserted, for the purpose of breaking the iron asunder as the furnace re-

volvied. Large lumps of iron ore were left projecting high above the general level of the lining; cast-iron projections, covered with a thin layer of the initial lining, were inserted, but all gave a good deal of trouble and were finally abandoned as impracticable.

In carefully watching and testing the product of these two furnaces, a much more serious difficulty presented itself. In a cylinder so long in proportion to its diameter, the end next to the fire-grate was always much hotter than the other, and the iron at this end was always the best, thus producing two qualities of iron in each charge. Added to this lack of uniformity (which was not met with in the small furnace) was the labor of separating the iron. There seemed no way left to adapt the system to existing machinery; in fact, experience indicated that the further we departed from the old method of making the iron into a number of small balls, the better would be the results. Accordingly, furnaces were built with cylinders 6 feet in diameter and 4 feet 6 inches long, in which the entire charge was made into one ball. With slight alteration, the old squeezer was made to take these balls of 600 pounds, and the iron was found to be perfectly uniform. The results obtained were so satisfactory that in 1870 the company authorized the removal of all the hand-puddling furnaces as fast as machines could be built to replace them. One result constantly met with was the subject of much unfavorable comment among those who had not investigated the subject. It was the fact that, instead of the usual loss of from 10 to 15 per cent. in weight by hand-puddling, there was a gain of from 5 to 8 per cent.—that is, out of 500 pounds of pig iron charged into the furnace, there was obtained in puddled bars from 525 to 540 pounds. The gain often ran up to 10 per cent., but the figures given will represent a fair average.

I will now describe the operation of puddling by machinery, in which we will find at least a partial solution of the above mentioned seeming impossibility. Puddling is essentially a refining process, and as the refining is best accomplished while the iron is in a fluid state, a gray pig is preferable to a white pig, because it may be kept fluid as long as desired, this property being chiefly due to the amount of silicon it contains. White iron, which usually contains a low percentage of silicon, begins to granulate very soon after melting, unless a large amount of phosphorus is present. The refining agent used in puddling is an oxide of iron, and a quantity of the latter is usually put into the furnace, in the shape of hammer cinder, squeezer cinder or roll-scale, with each charge of iron. As soon as they are melted, the furnace is started to revolve slowly, the iron being covered by a bath of liquid oxide. To facilitate the operation, a small jet of water is now thrown, by means of a rubber hose, upon the descending side of the furnace lining, immediately above the liquid iron. This chills a part of the oxide, which, adhering to the lining, is carried down through the iron, oxidizing the silicon, phosphorus, and such other impurities as the iron may contain, and these become incorporated with the cinders. It is interesting to watch these changes taking place. The iron, which at first was quite fluid and somewhat resembling quicksilver, becomes gradually thicker, until, when the refining is complete, it has entirely lost its silvery appearance and comes to the consistency of thick paste or mortar, its melting temperature having materially increased. The bath of oxide, on the contrary, has become more fluid and its melting temperature decreased. This operation is carried as far as possible without causing ebullition. The temperature is now raised so as to thoroughly liquefy all the oxide, which is now removed from the furnace through a tapping hole. When this is done, the furnace is again put in more rapid motion, so as thoroughly to agitate the iron. Up to this point the iron has retained a large part of its carbon, which is now rapidly oxidized by the lining of the furnace and causes violent ebullition. The iron has now reached the granulated state and occupies five or six times the space it did when fluid. The carbonic oxide gas, produced by a union of the oxygen of the lining and the carbon of the metal, presents a beautiful appearance as it bursts through the surface in many hundred jets of pale blue flame.

When carbon is burned by free oxygen it has no effect in reducing oxide of iron; but when the carbon is oxidized by the solid oxides of the furnace lining, the oxide containing it is reduced to the metallic state and is added to the charge, and as from 300 to 600 pounds of iron ore are used (in the shape of lining) for every ton of iron produced, it must be the iron reduced from this lining which increases the charge and makes it greater than the original weight of pig iron. It is believed by many that silicon has this power to reduce oxide of iron to the metallic state, and it is a fact, well established, that iron containing a high percentage of silicon gives a better yield than iron containing but little silicon, although the carbon in both cases may be the same. The boiling operation usually lasts from 10 to 15 minutes, when the grains of iron unite, forming a spongy mass, which is then removed from the furnace to be squeezed, hammered or rolled into bars, as may be required. There were in 1870 and 1871 three forges built to puddle iron by this method—one each in Chattanooga, Indianapolis and Pittsburgh. In the two former the furnaces and engines were poorly constructed, and, after working for about one year, the defects of building and abuse while working made the repairs so heavy that they were finally abandoned. The plant of 10 furnaces in Pittsburgh is still in successful operation.

In 1871, Mr. Danks visited England, and, by invitation, read a paper before the Iron and Steel Institute, at a meeting held in Dudley, giving a description of his furnace. This resulted in the selection of a commission of three gentlemen to visit Cincinnati and investigate the subject. The scientific part of the inquiry was intrusted to Mr. George J. Snellus (at that time in the employ of the Dowlais Works), the commercial aspect of the system to Mr. John A. Jones (ironmaster, of Middlesbrough), and the practical working to Mr. John Lester (of Wolverhampton). They came over in October, 1871, bringing with them about 40 tons of English pig iron

and iron ore, containing good, bad and indifferent qualities, all of which were carefully marked. The lining was all taken out of one furnace and a lining of English material put in. Samples were taken from each brand of pig iron for analysis; also, samples at different stages of the operation during puddling. They weighed all the material used and the iron produced. The examination was a very searching one, and the results fully accorded with our own previous experience. They visited Indianapolis and Chattanooga, where furnaces were at that time in successful operation. (Those in Pittsburgh were not then completed.) I omit reference to their report on account of the length of this paper, which already exceeds the limits of the mere sketch intended. In February, 1872, the first furnace on the Danks system in England was put in operation, at the works of Messrs. Hopkins, Gilkes & Co., in Middlesbrough. Specimens of the iron produced were severely tested, and exhibited at the quarterly meeting of the iron trade. The excitement ran high, and a public invitation was given for the iron trade to visit the works in a body on a certain day to see the furnace in operation. In the meantime, a written contract was entered into with the inventor to pay a certain price for the right to use 200 furnaces; the contract was signed by Mr. Menelaus on behalf of the manufacturers, and the day fixed for payment. But when the day came, it brought disappointment to the inventor, for, through the efforts of one or two members who had been unsuccessful workers upon this same problem, the contract was repudiated. Many members openly condemned this disgraceful proceeding, and four firms obtained licenses to build furnaces which would puddle 1000 pounds at a charge. Two of these firms met with the same fate as their predecessors at Indianapolis and Chattanooga, and from the same cause. I have no recent information as to whether the others are now working; but in 1878, Messrs. Hopkins, Gilkes & Co. produced with their six furnaces over 10,000 tons of machine-puddled iron, on all of which they realized a handsome advance in price over the iron puddled by hand, owing to its superior quality.

Soon after the starting of our first furnace in England, and the practical demonstration of the successful working of the machine, others entered the field, using our lining and cooling advantages without asking permission; among them were Mr. Adam Spencer, of West Hartlepool, and Mr. Crampton, of the Woolwich Arsenal. Mr. Spencer built an immense furnace, the cylinder of which was about 10 feet long, and in which he worked one ton of iron at each charge. He met with the same trouble we had found in the long cylinder, and, failing to obtain a uniform result, soon abandoned it. Mr. Crampton made a new departure in trying to adapt pulverized fuel to the revolving furnace, in 1872. His furnace was a long cylinder with a water jacket, the shell being made double, and a large stream of water circulating through it. The cylinder was divided into two compartments—one of which was intended as a combustion and the other as a puddling chamber. This evidently did not give good results, as the double cylinder was soon replaced by a short single one, and the fuel blown directly into the puddling chamber. The heat obtained is said to have been very intense, but the foreign matter in the fuel impaired the quality of the iron to such a degree that it had to be discontinued. Dr. C. W. Siemens has used the revolving furnace extensively for the manufacture of iron direct from the ore. A description of the process would unduly lengthen this paper.

On March 5, 1872, William Sellers, of Philadelphia, obtained patents for a revolving puddling furnace, in which one end of the cylinder was entirely closed, and the gases made to enter and leave through different flues at the open end. The closed end of the cylinder was provided with a large trunnion, by which its rotation was effected and also part of the weight carried, instead of a shiftable flue, by the removal of which access was had to the cylinder. The cylinder and engines were mounted on a pivoted frame, and could be turned at a right angle from their working position. I have no information as to the results obtained with this furnace, but believe none of them are now in operation. The report of the English commission made plain the fact that iron of an inferior quality could be rendered sufficiently pure by the process of mechanical puddling to be used in the open-hearth steel process, instead of the expensive charcoal bloom now used. Nothing of importance was done in that direction (in this country, at least) until about one year since, when the Otis Iron and Steel Company, of Cleveland, took up the matter under the direction of Mr. Samuel T. Wellman, superintendent of their works. Their scientific man and also a practical ironworker were sent to Cincinnati, where our furnaces were at work. Samples were taken back for analysis, and soon after they purchased the right to build a furnace capable of puddling one ton at each charge. The cylinder of the furnace is built of steel plates strongly riveted together, and is 6 feet 6 inches in diameter and same length. The fire-grate is fitted with our automatic stoker. The furnace has been in operation about six months, and the product put into steel with such favorable results that others are now in process of erection.

It would require a large volume to record all the perplexing problems that have presented themselves to those engaged in perfecting this system. The point which perhaps gave most trouble was the abrasion ring at each end of the cylinder. These rings are not only subjected to a good deal of friction as the cylinder revolves, but also to unequal expansion and contraction. It was important that they should be kept cool, and if the workman neglected to keep water turned on, they became hot, and, in cooling, became cracked, so that if a large stream of water was turned on, part of it ran into the furnace. The requirements of the case called for a ring which should stand the friction without wearing too fast, and be of such material as would stand repa-eling and cooling, and constructed in such a manner that no matter how much water was turned on, it could not get into the furnace. About 25 different modifications were tried, both in wrought and cast iron, and considerable time was re-

quired to test their respective merits. The ends of the first cylinders were straight-faced instead of conical, and when the furnaces were cooled down on Saturdays, the lining was found to have a number of cracks varying from  $\frac{1}{4}$  to  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch in width, due to shrinkage. During the repairs to the brickwork, these cracks became filled with fine dust; and when the furnace was heated again they could not close up, and the expansive force was sufficient to break the cylinder plates, though they were provided with heavy wrought-iron bolts and bands. This suggested the conical ends, which were found effectually to remedy the difficulty. So, indeed, it might be said of nearly every detail of the present mechanical puddling furnace—all have been suggested by experience, and, although many of the furnaces first started have been discontinued, the work of the past 10 years has not been in vain, for progress, though necessarily slow, has been sure, and it may be safely affirmed that the mechanical puddling furnace of today is not only a durable, but an economical machine.

The full benefits of mechanical puddling will not be realized until it has almost entirely abolished the present plan of making pig iron for mill purposes. The fluid metal will be taken directly from the blast furnace to the puddling machines, where it may be worked in charges of one ton each, and the spongy ball, after having been squeezed into a compact bloom, say, of 15 inches diameter, taken directly from the squeezer to a powerful universal mill, and either reduced to a bar from 10 to 15 inches wide and 1 inch thick, or, if desired, made into a square billet of any size down to 5 or 6 inches; the bars cut and piled in lengths required for different purposes; the billets sheared and taken, while hot, to a heating furnace, where, with a wash-heat, they may be rolled into any small sections required, without the intermediate process of piling, or having been allowed to cool, in one continuous process from the time the ore is first heated until it is bar iron ready for market. Working under such conditions as these, a product of 10 or 12 tons can be relied upon from each machine every 12 hours (instead of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  tons made by hand), and of a quality far superior to that produced by the old system.

## A Canal Through Palestine.

At a meeting of the London Balloon Society, Captain Molesworth, R. N., delivered a lecture upon the subject of the proposed Jordan Canal. The idea was, he said, to cut the canal 25 miles from Acre to the valley of the Jordan. It would be about 33 feet deep, so as to accommodate the largest ship. It would, moreover, be about 200 feet wide, which would be sufficient to allow vessels to pass each other. There would be no necessity for locks, because, when the water was let in, the water of the Dead Sea and the Mediterranean would practically flow on the same level to the Akaba Gulf of the Red Sea. The cutting of the canal seemed to present no great engineering difficulties. A company had been got up, and that company spoke of the expense as about £8,000,000, but if it could be carried out for £20,000,000 the advantage would still be largely in favor of the ship owner. Some discussion followed, in the course of which doubt was expressed as to the financial success of the scheme, owing mainly to the fact that if carried out it would flood many miles of valuable fertile land on either side of the river. The general opinion was in favor of the canal, and ultimately the following resolution was adopted: "That, in the opinion of this meeting, the canal which is proposed from the Mediterranean through the River Jordan and the Dead Sea to the Gulf of Akaba is absolutely necessary for the growing commerce between the Eastern and Western nations of this hemisphere." The Constantinople correspondent of the *Standard* says that Admiral Sir Edward Ingfield, who is now in the Turkish capital to represent the interests of the English syndicate for cutting a channel for a waterway through Palestine, has had a very favorable reception at the palace, for which Musurus Pacha had paved the way by his warm recommendations of the scheme. The Sultan, it is said, views with favor the project in question, which, by opening up a water passage into the Red Sea, would render Turkey independent of the Suez Canal, over which His Majesty now exercises only the most nominal control.

The large tunnel under Jones & Laughlin's Iron Works, at Pittsburgh, was recently completed. It was constructed by the Vanderbilt Pittsburgh, McKeesport and Youghiogheny Railroad, and is some 1650 feet long. Its cost will be \$500,000. Over 600 men were employed on it for a year. The tunnel is one of the engineering feats of the day. The roof is only a few feet below the top of the mill floor, where massive rolls, hammers and hundreds of men were working. The mill is the largest single mill in the United States, and none of the buildings were injured, and work was not delayed an hour. The ground through which the tunnel passes was mill cinder and slag. For over 100 feet the slag was so hard that it could not be blasted. Heavy weights were dropped on it, and the broken pieces buried in holes where they fell, as they could not be moved, the masses were so large. The road opened for a distance of 60 miles on Sunday for freight traffic.

The craze for ship canals still continues unabated. The last canal proposed is a waterway through Palestine, from Acre, on the Mediterranean, to Akabah, on the Red Sea. This is to be in opposition to the De Lesseps Suez canal and the proposed new Suez canal. In order to make the Palestine canal, it is proposed to have a canal, 25 miles in length, from Haifa, in the Bay of Acre, through the plains of Ashdraelon, to the valley of the River Jordan; this canal is to be 200 feet wide and 40 feet deep; thence the route will be to the Dead Sea, and the latter will be connected with the Red Sea by a canal 20 miles in length, from the head of the Gulf of Akabah. This is the proposition, but whether it will be carried out will no doubt depend upon the manner in which the public will receive the scheme.

\*Read before the Section of Mechanics and Engineering of the Ohio Mechanics' Institute, February 27, 1883.







## The Panama Canal.

In an interesting account relating to the Panama Canal, *Engineering* states that the first consideration which presented itself, when the scheme was to be put into execution, was the choice of a port, adapted both for the disembarkation of the plant and stores required for the works, and for the residence or the population which would necessarily collect there. Colon was naturally fixed upon, being the point of arrival of the regular steamers, and the terminus of the railway across the isthmus, and having, besides, good wharfage. On examination, however, these advantages for the most part disappeared. The steamboats, with fixed times of arrival and departure, could not hold themselves at the service of the canal company, the railway company threw difficulties in the way of co-operation, and the wharves were already appropriated. Moreover, Colon is the most unhealthy situation on the isthmus, the town being built on the Isle of Manzanillo, the interior of which is a stagnant marsh. It was not therefore surprising that it was proposed to abandon Colon, and form a fluvial port, instead, at Gatun, on the River Chagres. In pursuance of this idea, Lesseppe City was commenced; but the bad accommodation, which was all that the pioneer workmen could obtain, exposed them to malarial fevers, and the result was an amount of sickness and a mortality that produced a panic, and caused the abandonment of the unfortunate "city," which had been founded with so much éclat.

Thus thrown back upon Colon, the company decided to create a port of their own there by embanking and filling up a stretch of the marshy shore on the southwest side of the Isle of Manzanillo, along the entrance to the future canal, and terminating just opposite the mouth of Folk's River. The harbor at this point was to be deepened, and protected at the seaside by a mole thrown out into the Bay of Simon. The whole embankment has been named after Christopher Columbus. The execution of this gigantic work is occupying all the energies of the Colon section. About 458,000 cubic yards of ballast were required, and it was unfortunately impossible to obtain these from the dredgings of the harbor, as the latter consist almost entirely of slime, or living madrepores, which (for sanitary reasons) it would be out of the question to expose to the sun in large quantities. The material, therefore, had to be obtained from some low hills at a distance of a little over two miles. This part of the work is nearly completed, and 74 acres are now reclaimed partly from the marsh and partly from the sea, and faced toward the harbor by a wall of masonry going down to a depth of 26 feet. For this, stone was necessary, and this has been obtained from another cutting opened at Kenny's Bluff, on the opposite side of the bay, the stone being brought across in barges. In the course of quarrying at this point a spring of drinkable water was discovered, which was a great piece of good fortune, as Colon is entirely unprovided with this necessary of life. When the embankment is completed the quays will be 3000 feet long, and the mole which shelters them will be 656 feet long, and (on an average) 377 feet wide. One covered wharf is now ready for use.

The makeshift condition of all arrangements before the commencement and pending the completion of the Christopher Columbus embankment, entailed in the earlier stages of the work immense additional labor on all concerned, a fatigue which cost the life of the first engineer, M. Etienne. At present matters are gradually coming into order, but the necessity of utilizing every spot of firm ground as fast as it is formed (irrespective of the final plan for the position of dwellings, establishments, railway lines, &c.) must for some time still cause inconvenience and frequent alterations. A double row of houses, for employees, has been erected along the embankment, and named Charles de Lesseppe street, and, as they are built upon wholesome soil and open to the sea breezes, they are expected to be healthy. The dredging of the harbor has not made much progress, as little work could be done until the mole was sufficiently advanced to afford shelter to the dredgers, and at the time of writing the marine dredger supplied by Lobnitz, of Garelock, had only just arrived, and was not yet in action. Great results are expected from this machine, which is 180 feet long, 25 feet wide and 11 feet deep. The engines (one of which drives the chain buckets, and the other the screw) are of 250 horse-power, and the dredger safely crossed the Atlantic by herself. A similar dredger is to be dispatched from the same establishment to Panama, and the task of those who have to take her round the Horn is not to be envied. The bay off the embankment has already been so far deepened that there is a free channel up to the mouth of the canal. At this point the work is taken up by a firm of American contractors, who have undertaken to excavate the canal as far as Gatun.

Turning now to the other or Pacific end of the canal, we find the principal offices of the company are located in a building which was formerly the Grand Hotel of Panama and was bought for \$200,000. On April 1 the actual number of the staff was: Workmen employed on the line, 6158; agents engaged on the Isthmus, 150; and agents contracted for in France, 161; or a total of 6469. The laborers are Colombians, Martinicans and Jamaicans, the latter outnumbering the two former in the proportion of 4500 to 1658. At present 600 workmen are employed in the neighborhood of the offices, building roads, laying out gardens, leveling mounds and the like, and it is expected that such work, together with the erection of the central stables and central hospital, will be completed at the end of this year. The contract for the first section on the Pacific side, from Pedro Miguel to Rio Grande, has been let to the Franco-American Trading Company, who have not as yet commenced work. Their machinery is being completed in the United States, and they are supposed to put the dredges in motion in July. The quantities of material to be removed will amount to 3,816,000 c. m., and the price to be paid is 28 cents the cubic meter for earth, with special rates for rock. The contractors are to hand over their portion of the canal, completed, in two years, at a cost of about \$1,200,000.

In the next section of Paraiso a large amount of preliminary work has been accomplished in the way of workshops, stores, offices and cottages, there being 415 laborers engaged in this way. The actual excavation is expected to begin in November, and in the meantime care is being taken to provide sufficient and healthy shelter for the men, the plan adopted being to build the huts on four posts and thatch them with palm leaves, so that there shall be ample ventilation both below and above. In the summit section of Culebra, all the machinery has been erected on the spot by English and American mechanics. The excavators, ten in number, are of American manufacture, being of the Otis and Osmond types. There are also on the ground 10 locomotives, 300 wagons, several cranes and steam pumps, 450 tons of steel rails, two portable engines, 100 Decauville wagons, and somewhat over a mile of rails. The excavator tracks are nearly all laid down, and many sidings for trucks connecting with the main line of the Panama Railway are completed. The laborers number nearly 700. The contract amounts to 3,500,000 c. m., at 60 cents per meter for the first million, and 55 cents for the remainder, the total cost, with rock blasting, being \$2,250,000.

The next section, that of Emperador, reveals the most substantial progress of any. A convenient town has been built in the French style, and there have been laid about 41 miles of rails, 7000 sleepers for excavators, 25,000 for ordinary track and 50 switches and crossings. Already 12 excavators, two engines, eight cranes and 400 wagons are ready for work, and 100,000 c. m. of earth have been removed. The total amount included in the contract for this section is 3,000,000 c. m., the price being \$1.75 for the first 500,000, \$1.15 for the next 1,800,000 and 90 cents for the remaining 700,000, or \$3,575,000 in all. The principal feature of the work in the next section is the building of a railway to the barrage of the River Chagres; all stone and earth excavated at this section will be conveyed to Gamboa by rail, to build the dam between the Cerro Cruz and Cerro Obispo. The barrage is to be constructed between these two hills, terminating at each end in the sides of the Cerros. Its length is 2600 feet, and its height 100 feet, while its capacity is 660,000,000 c. m. This reservoir is intended to catch the storm water, and so prevent it from scouring out the channel of the canal. The greatest rainfall hitherto noted has been 80 c. m. in a month, which would give 720,000,000 c. m. of water, and hence the greatest rise would never be able to overflow or even fill the barrage. There are 430 men at work on this portion of the undertaking.

In the next section of Gorgona the excavation track has been laid and many sidings completed. The canal cuts the Chagres five times, and sometimes follows its bed when the curves are not sharp. The same thing occurs at fifteen different places in the next two sections of San Pablo and Bohio Soldado, in each of which some of the preliminary work has been done. The remainder of the cutting toward Colon is to be effected, as already explained, by dredgers, which are expected to get to work in a short time, and as the ground is soft and marshy there is no great difficulty to be apprehended. Of the vast quantity of material required for the whole work, only a portion has yet been received. Of sixty locomotives ordered in Europe, twenty were at work at the beginning of the year, and twenty-seven have since been dispatched to the Isthmus. About 2000 railway trucks, landing places, &c., were ordered; 600 of these only have been received, and most of them are in use. Of fifty Couvreux excavators, only eighteen have arrived; but the ground is not everywhere cleared, so as to enable them to set to work. The service of dredgers, barges, tugs and other vessels appears to be complete. Three repairing shops are being established—one at Colon, another at Gorgona, toward the middle of the Isthmus, and the third on the Pacific slope.

Although considerable sickness prevailed some time since, the cases of illness are now reported to have fallen to 14.30 per cent. and the mortality to 2.5 per cent. The prevailing complaints are yellow, malignant, intermittent, remittent, bilious and marsh fevers, dysentery, phthisis and pneumonia—a sufficiently formidable list to deter any reasonable person from joining the enterprise except under very special inducements. When, however, the hospitals and the dwellings are completed and the laborers have learned to take precautions against chills and exposure to malarial, it may be expected that the difficulties arising from sickness will cease to be as formidable as they have hitherto proved themselves to be. The labor question still remains unsolved; 6000 men are now employed upon mere preliminaries, and the simple list of the machinery which has been ordered reveals what large extra gangs will be needed to deal with the enormous masses of material which the excavators and other apparatus, if efficiently handled, may be expected to remove daily. When the material to be dealt with is reckoned in millions of cubic meters, as it is in several of the sections, 500 or 600 men will avail but little, especially when it is remembered how much the effective number will be lessened when mechanics, clerks, storekeepers, cooks and the like, have been deducted.

The Supervising Inspector-General of the Steam Vessels reports that during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1883, the total number of accidents on river steamers resulting in loss of life was 34, of which 12 were from explosions, 5 from fire, 11 from collisions and 6 from snags, wrecks and sinking. The total number of lives lost by accidents from various causes during the year was 284, of which 69 were from explosion or accident; 100 from wrecks or foundering, 45 from fire, 50 from collisions and 5 from other causes. As compared with the previous fiscal year, the number of accidents to steamers was less, while the loss of life was greater. Total number of accidents to steamers resulting in loss of life in 1882, 41; do. in 1883, 34; decrease, 7. Total number of lives lost in 1882, 205; do. in 1883, 284; increase, 79. The main increase occurred in accidents caused by collisions.

## The Cause of Evident Magnetism in Iron, Steel, and Other Magnetic Metals.\*

BY PROF. D. E. HUGHES, F. R. S.

The extreme sensitiveness of the induction balance to all molecular changes in the structure of metals was remarked in my first paper on this subject to the Royal Society,† and in the case of iron and steel it is most remarkable, as the addition or subtraction of a small part, or the addition of the smallest iron filing, to an already large balanced mass of iron is at once rendered evident and measurable. Possessing such an invaluable instrument of research, I was desirous of investigating the molecular construction of iron and steel, but at once I met with a difficulty, viz., that magnetism itself completely changed the character of any piece of iron under investigation. Consequently, finding no help or explanation of the effects produced from any accepted theories of magnetism, I was forced to investigate, by means of the induction balance, the whole question of magnetism as existing in the interior of a magnet, and to determine the particular structure for each case, such as neutrality and polarity. In a recent paper to the Royal Society, upon the theory of magnetism,‡ I described the use of and demonstrations obtained by the induction balance. In this paper I propose to confine myself to demonstrations that can be repeated without it, and whose effects can be observed by the aid of ordinary magnetic direction needles. That magnetism is of a molecular nature has long been accepted, for it is evident that, no matter how much we divide a magnet, we still have its two poles in each separate portion; consequently, we can easily imagine this division carried so far that we should at last arrive at the molecule itself possessing its two distinctive poles; consequently, all theories of magnetism attempt some explanation of the cause of this molecular polarity, and the reason for apparent neutrality in a mass of iron. Coulomb and Poisson assume that each molecule is a sphere containing two distinct magnetic fluids, which in the state of neutrality are mixed together, but when polarized are separated from each other at opposite sides; and, in order to explain why these fluids are kept apart as in a permanent magnet, they had to assume, again, that each molecule contained a peculiar coercive force, whose functions were to prevent any change or mixing of these fluids when separated.

There is not one experimental evidence to prove the truth of this assumption, and, as regards coercive force, we have direct experimental proof opposing this view, as we know that molecular rigidity or hardness, as in tempered steel, and molecular freedom or softness, as in soft iron, fulfill all the conditions of this assumed coercive force. Ampère's theory, based upon the analogy of electric currents, supposes elementary currents flowing around each molecule, and that in the neutral state these molecules are arranged haphazard in all directions, but that magnetization consists in arranging them symmetrically. The objections to Ampère's theory are numerous. 1. We have no knowledge or experimental proof of any elementary electric currents continually flowing without any expenditure of energy. 2. If we admit the assumption of electric currents around each molecule, the molecule itself would then be electro-magnetic, and the question still remains, What is polarity? Have the supposed electric currents separated the two assumed magnetic fluids contained in the molecule, as in Poisson's theory; or are the electric currents themselves magnetic, independent of the iron molecule? In order to produce the supposed heterogeneous arrangement of neutrality, Ampère's currents would have either to change their position upon the molecule, and have no fixed axis of rotation, or else the molecule, with its currents and polarities, would rotate, and thus be acting in accordance with the theory of De la Rive. 3. This theory does not explain why (as in the case of soft iron) polarity should disappear whenever the exciting cause is removed, as in the case of transient magnetization. It would thus require a coercive force in iron to cause exactly one-half of the molecules to instantly reverse their direction, in order to pass from apparent external polarity to that of neutrality. The influence of mechanical vibrations and stress upon iron in facilitating or discharging its magnetism, as proved by Matteucci, 1847, in addition to the discovery by Page, 1837, of a molecular movement taking place in iron during its magnetization, producing audible sounds, and the discovery by Dr. Joule, 1842, of the elongation of iron when magnetized, led De la Rive, in his remarkable "Treatise on Electricity," 1853, to give his theoretical views upon magnetism in the following remarkable words: "The whole of the magnetic molecular phenomena that we have been studying lead us to believe that the magnetization of a body is due to a particular arrangement of its molecules, originally endowed with magnetic virtue, but which in the natural state are so arranged that the magnetism of the body that they constitute is not apparent. Magnetism would, therefore, consist in disturbing this state of equilibrium, or in giving to the particles an arrangement that makes manifest the property with which they are endowed, and not in developing it in them. The coercive force should be the resistance of the molecules to change their relative positions."

Wiedemann, in 1861, gives a theory in which he admits the fluids of Poisson or the elementary currents of Ampère as the cause of polarity of the molecule, but believes that the molecules are turned in a general direction in the case of polarity, and that in neutrality, like Ampère's, the magnetic axes of the molecules are turned in all directions. Maxwell, in his remarkable treatise on "Electricity and Magnetism," 1881, page 75, gives the following résumé of Weber's theory: "Weber's theory differs from Poisson's in assuming that the molecules of the iron are always magnets, even before the

application of the magnetizing force, but that in ordinary iron the magnetic axes of the molecules are turned indifferently in every direction, so that the iron, as a whole, exhibits no magnetic properties." And, again, page 429, Maxwell says he agrees with Weber's views, and that neutrality, or unmagnetized iron, has the axes of its molecules placed indifferently in all directions, and that the act of magnetization consists in turning all the molecules, so that their axes are either rendered all parallel to one direction, or at least deflected in that direction. I have quoted these several theories which admit of the inherent polarity of the molecule, and in that respect they entirely agree with my own; but the induction balance at once shows that they are erroneous in the most important part, for my researches have proved that neutrality is perfectly symmetrical, that there is no case of neutrality where the axes of the molecules are turned indifferently in all directions, and that we cannot obtain perfect neutrality except when the molecules form a complete closed circuit of attraction. I believe that a true theory of magnetism should admit of complete demonstration, that it should present no anomalies, and that all the known effects should at once be explained by it. From numerous researches, I have gradually formed a theory of magnetism entirely based upon experimental results, and these have led me to the following conclusions:

1. That each molecule of a piece of iron, steel or other magnetic metal is a separate and independent magnet, having its two poles and distribution of magnetic polarity exactly the same as its total evident magnetism when noticed upon a steel bar-magnet.
2. That each molecule, or its polarity, can be rotated in either direction upon its axis by torsion, stress or by physical forces such as magnetism and electricity.
3. That the inherent polarity or magnetism of each molecule is a constant quantity, like gravity; that it can neither be augmented nor destroyed.
4. That when we have external neutrality, or no apparent magnetism, the molecules, or their polarities, arrange themselves so as to satisfy their mutual attraction by the shortest path, and thus form a complete closed circuit of attraction.
5. That when magnetism becomes evident, the molecules or their polarities have all rotated symmetrically in a given direction, producing a north pole if rotated in that direction as regards the piece of steel, or a south pole if rotated in the opposite direction. Also, that in evident magnetism we have still a symmetrical arrangement, but one whose circles of attraction are not completed except through an external armature joining both poles.
6. That we have permanent magnetism when the molecular rigidity, as in tempered steel, retains them in a given direction, and transient magnetism whenever the molecules rotate in comparative freedom, as in soft iron.

## EXPERIMENTAL EVIDENCES.

In the above theory the coercive force of Poisson is replaced by molecular rigidity and freedom, and as the effects of mechanical vibrations, torsion and stress upon the apparent destruction and facilitation of magnetism is well known, I will, before demonstrating the more serious parts of the theory, cite a few experiments to prove that molecular rigidity fulfills all the requirements of an assumed coercive force. The influence of vibrations, torsion, or stress of any kind upon a magnetized steel or iron rod may be seen by striking with a wooden mallet rods of hard and soft steel, also hard and soft iron previously magnetized to a known degree. The tempered steel, owing to its molecular rigidity, will lose but 5 per cent.; the soft steel, 60; hard iron, 50, and soft Swedish iron, 99 per cent. of its magnetism, the amount of loss depending not so much upon whether the metal be steel or iron as upon its degree of hardness and softness; and as hard steel requires far more power to magnetize it to the same force than iron, it is possible to imagine a steel so hard that its molecules could not rotate, and that, consequently, no magnetism could be manifested from a given inducing cause, while a perfectly soft iron would give the maximum effect, and instantly return to its previous state. From this we might in error suppose that soft Swedish iron could not retain its magnetism, and that its natural state would be zero, or neutrality. The apparent disappearance of magnetism, however, is here due to the extreme freedom of motion of its molecules, allowing them at once to follow the comparatively feeble directing force of the earth's magnetism. We can demonstrate this by feebly magnetizing a rod of soft iron held vertically, so that its north pole is at the lower portion. Upon removing the inducing magnet, or electro-magnetic coil, we find that the rod retains a powerful north polarity, but if magnetized in a contrary sense, then we have only traces of magnetism left upon the withdrawal of the inducing cause. To succeed in this experiment, as in all others where soft iron is mentioned, we should use the best Swedish charcoal iron, thoroughly annealed at high temperature. We find, again, that rods of steel or iron will lose far less magnetism when vibrated in the magnetic dip, or vertically, when their north poles are at the lowest extremity, than when horizontal, or still less than when their poles are contrary to those of the earth's field, and also that they will acquire their maximum magnetism from a given exciting cause when held vertically as described, and the molecules allowed greater freedom of motion to obey the directing influence by vibrations, torsion, stress or blows upon the iron. Any influence that would tend to give greater freedom of motion, such as heat or mechanical trepidations, gives a far higher magnetic force to the iron than could be obtained without these aids.

In order to render visible the effects of motion upon magnetism, we may take two glass tubes or ordinary vials of any length or diameter, say, 10 centimeters in length by two centimeters in diameter. If we now put iron filings in these tubes, leaving about one-third vacant, so as to allow complete freedom in the filings when shaken, we find that each tube, when magnetized, retains an equal amount of residual magnetism, and that this all disappears upon slightly shaking the tube. We are thus imitating the effects

of vibration. But if in one of these tubes we pour melted rosin (in fact, any slightly viscous liquid, such as petroleum, suffice), we then render these filings more rigid, and then we can no longer produce by shaking the disappearance of its residual magnetism. In pouring in petroleum we have apparently been introducing a strong coercive force, but we know that it can only have the mechanical effect of rendering the iron filings less free to turn, and so comparatively rigid. If we desire to see the effects of torsion, we have only to shake the filings so that when the tube is held horizontally the vacant space is above, and rotate it slightly (but without shaking) about a horizontal axis. Its remaining magnetism instantly disappears upon rotation, although we evidently have not changed the longitudinal position of its partcles. A similar effect takes place upon a soft iron rod; for if we magnetize it, and observe its remaining magnetism, we find that, upon giving a slight torsion to this wire, its remaining magnetism instantly disappears—a similar effect to that in the rotating tube of iron filings. But if the iron is rendered more rigid by hammering, or steel rendered hard and rigid by tempering, torsions or vibrations have but little effect, as in the case of the filings rendered rigid as above mentioned. Thus we have no longer need of an assumed mysterious coercive force to account for the retention of magnetism; for once knowing the mechanical qualities of iron and steel, and their degree of molecular rigidity or hardness, we can at once predict their retentive magnetic powers.

## ROTATION OF INHERENT POLARIZED MOLECULES.

Torsion, as well as mechanical vibrations, has, as we have seen, a powerful influence in aiding the molecules to overcome their inertia, and thus aid them to rotate in the direction of the inducing influence, and we may thus polarize strongly a flat soft-iron rod by simply bending or vibrating it when held vertically, and if we measure the magnetic force obtained, we shall notice that the force is strictly relative to the degree of softness of the iron. Thus, with hard steel we should obtain only traces of polarization, while with extremely pure soft Swedish iron we obtain the maximum of force. The bar of iron or steel, being held in the earth's magnetic field, of infinite size compared with the bar, and infinitely homogeneous, cannot deflect or weaken its surrounding field. Its lower portion being north, apparently strengthens it by its reaction, while its upper, south, apparently weakens the field; but, as Maxwell has shown, "the two poles of each molecule are equal and opposite; consequently, the sum of each molecule and the whole mass must be zero." We have a far greater induced polarity in iron or steel when the iron is in thin bars or small wires, and this we should expect, as the external molecules rotate directly under the influence of the earth's magnetism, while those forming the interior of the bar either rotate feebly, or, as in the case of very thick bars, actually act as an armature, preventing, by their influence, free rotation of the exterior molecules. Thus, as the sum of the two and equal polarities in a bar of iron is zero, it is evident that its polarity must be inherent. I have some remarkably pure soft Swedish iron wire, 1 mm. in diameter, and as its inherent polarity seemed great when held vertically in the earth's magnetic field, I measured in the induction balance this force compared with a similar column of the magnetic atmosphere which it displaced. The inherent polarity of this wire, simply rendered evident by the earth's magnetism, was 15,600 greater than the column it displaced. We cannot, either by induction, conduction or concentration, produce a greater force in another body of similar displacement or size, otherwise we could easily create power from a feeble source. Thus the enormously greater magnetic power observed in iron than the same column of air which it displaces must be due to the inherent polarity of its molecules.

Among numerous bars of iron upon which I have experimented, one of ordinary hoop iron, 2 cm. wide, 40 cm. long and  $\frac{1}{16}$  mm. thick, not softened, possesses sufficient molecular rigidity to be apparently uninfluenced by earth's magnetism. When this rod is rendered neutral, we have but feeble polarity—mere traces when it is held vertically under the earth's magnetic influence; but if we apply a few successive torsions or vibrations to it when thus held, we have at once several thousand times greater polarity than before. Now, if iron had the power of deflecting or concentrating the earth's magnetism upon itself, it should not require the mechanical aid to molecular rotation given to it by these torsions or vibrations. Thus we are forced to conclude at least the existence of the inherent polarity of the molecules; and, if we admit this, we must also, as a necessary consequence, admit the rotation of these molecules, else we cannot explain why mechanical vibrations allowing freedom of motion should always produce the polarity in accordance with the directing cause. I have already shown that torsion and vibrations *per se* are apparently destructive of magnetism; consequently, in this case Poisson's two fluids and Ampère's parallel currents should, according to their theory, be mixed or heterogeneous, while according to the views I am sustaining the polarized molecules should obey, as compass needles, any magnetic directing cause whenever sufficient molecular freedom of motion allows free rotation. The inherent polarity of iron may again be observed by drawing a flat rod of soft iron over one or both poles of a permanent magnet. This rod will then be powerfully magnetized, its remaining magnetism, when separated from the magnet, being sufficiently powerful to strongly deflect a suspended direction needle. A few light torsions or vibrations will then completely discharge it. Now, suppose this operation repeated successively many thousand times; if there were no inherent polarity we should have gradually drawn all the polarity out of the magnet and discharged it into the atmosphere. Nothing of the kind takes place. The molecules of the iron are simply rotated each time, and the only energy in work expended or lost comes from the arm of the experimenter, and the energy required would be strictly in accordance with the molecular freedom, or softness and hardness of the iron and steel; thus, while soft iron could be easily polarized and discharged by mechanical torsions, hard-

\*Read before the Society of Telegraph Engineers and of Electricians, May 24, 1883.

†On an Induction Current Balance and Experimental Researches made with it. "Proceedings Royal Society," March 20, p. 57, 1882.

‡"Proceedings Royal Society," May 10, 1882.



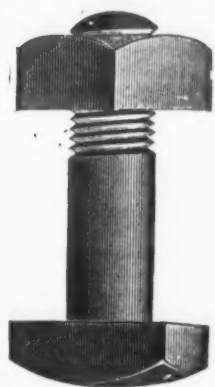
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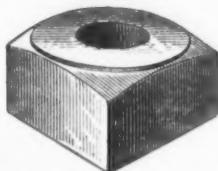
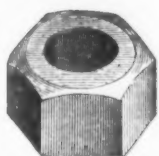
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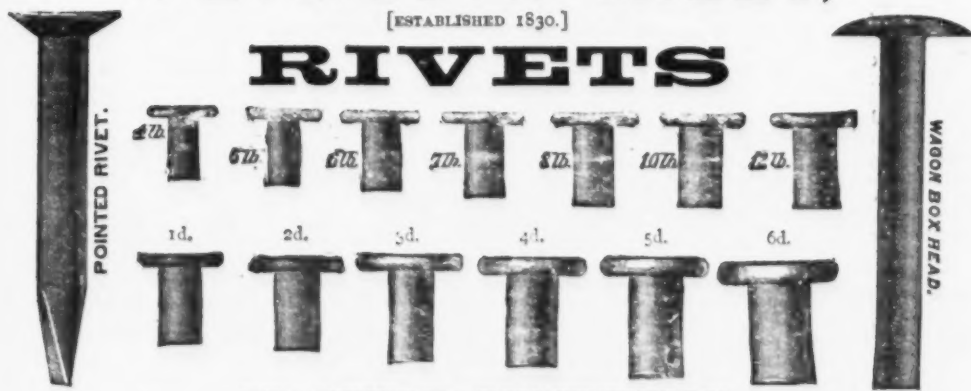


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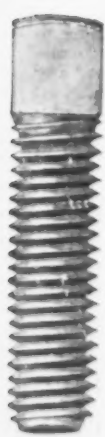


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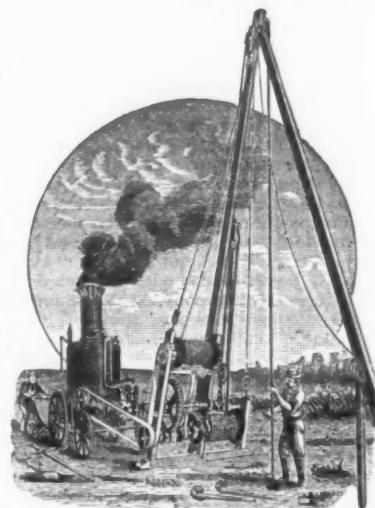
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tempered steel would require a far greater amount. Dr. Warren De la Rue, F.R.S., kindly aided me in this part of the research by passing a current from his well-known chloride-of-silver battery through iron and steel wires. A condenser of 42.8 microfarad capacity, charged by 3360 cells, was used. We passed this enormous electric charge longitudinally through the wires, and observations were made as to whether any change whatever was produced in their quality or inherent polarity, the result being that these wires gave exactly the same magnetic polarity from a given direction or inducing cause as before, being similar in nature and degree; consequently, this enormous electric force had not changed or destroyed the original inherent polarity. If the molecules possess inherent polarity and rotate upon their axes, similar to a series of compass needles having a slight degree of frictional rigidity, then, upon passing one pole of a magnet above them, they would turn symmetrically in one direction, and drawing the same pole of the magnet in the contrary direction would rotate them, and they would then remain symmetrically in the opposite direction.

A precisely similar effect takes place in a soft-iron rod placed east and west a few inches above a direction needle. Upon drawing the south pole of a powerful natural magnet at a few centimeters distance above the wire from east to west, the north polarities of the molecules successively turn in the direction of west, following the attraction of the south pole, as previously seen on the small compass needles. The rod is now magnetized with its north pole west, as indicated by the direction needle below any portion of this rod. Upon passing the same south pole of the natural magnet in a contrary direction, the molecules all rotate, their north poles still turning successively to the south pole of the permanent magnet until its arrival at the end from which the first magnetization commenced. The rod has now entirely changed its polarity, and its north pole is east. This phenomenon is well known in the ordinary magnetization of rods, where care is taken to draw the magnet always in a similar direction, or the poles would be reversed at each to-and-fro drawing. To account for this on Coulomb-Poisson's theory, it would be requisite that, first, all the fluids be separated with their north fluids symmetrically in one direction, but on drawing back the magnet these fluids would have to mix together, the north fluid passing through its south fluid to be finally opposite to its previous position, its coercive force doing the double work of allowing both fluids to mix and pass through each other, and finally keeping them entirely apart. Ampère's theory would require that from a haphazard arrangement the molecules should become symmetrically arranged upon the first passage of the magnet, then upon its reversed direction one-half of the electric elementary currents should successively revolve in a contrary direction to arrive at neutrality before, finally, the other half followed the direction of the first half, and now all these currents would be revolving in the opposite direction to that upon the first magnetization. We thus see that both these theories, while resting altogether upon assumption, are extremely complicated and improbable. We might suppose, from the theory which I am advocating, that upon the rotation of the molecules there would be some disturbance or mechanical trepidation; and such is found to be the case, as first observed by Page, and afterward verified by Dr. Joule and De la Rive, in the molecular sounds produced in iron upon its magnetization. Reis's first telephone was founded upon these sounds, and Du Moncel has made numerous researches upon this subject. In the last of my experiments cited, the sounds are too feeble to be heard, but by the application of the microphone these trepidations at once become audible.

That molecules of iron and other metals rotate with time, whose period becomes shortened by mechanical vibrations, is well known in metallurgy, the ultimate result being generally the passage from a fibrous condition, as in iron wires, to a high degree of crystallization. For many years I employed a circular vibrating spring as the regulator of speed of my printing telegraph instrument, and although this spring was so regulated by means of a frictional break, or "Frein," as not to surpass its limits of elasticity, these springs were constantly breaking after a few days' use, and, as a matter of urgent necessity, I made special researches into the cause of this breaking after a few days' constant vibratory action. I found at the point of rupture a high state of crystallization. Fibrous iron would thus become thoroughly crystallized and break in one day, the number of vibrations for an instrument in constant use during 24 hours being 1,200,000. Thus we could roughly estimate the life of iron in the form of one of these springs at 1,000,000 vibrations. Copper crystallized in one hour, and all metals and alloys were inferior to steel except aluminum bronze. The latter springs would stand six weeks' constant use, or some 50,000,000 of vibrations. I finally resolved this problem by spreading the amount of vibrating work over a spiral spring containing 3 m. of steel rod wound into the same space as previously held by the straight rod of 30 cm. By this means the average life of these springs has become five years. Evidently the molecules of these fibrous springs must have rotated under the vibrations in order to produce crystals. The same phenomenon is observed in axles of carriages receiving constant trepidations, large crystals being always found at the point of fracture. Again, if we rapidly magnetize and demagnetize an iron rod, we have the production of evident heat, due to the constant motion of its molecules. Maxwell describes an experiment of Beetz, in which an exceedingly small filament of iron was deposited by electrolyte, under the influence of a strong magnetic field, in order to arrive at the inherent polarity of comparatively few molecules, and, as its magnetic force was very great, he regards the experiment as conclusive. My own experiments show that we have far less external magnetic force from a solid bar than from a thin tube or flat bar of the same surface exposed to a limited exciting cause. We know that magnetism does not penetrate to a very great

depth, and we also know that, if to a thin steel permanent magnet we place another piece unmagnetized, or, better still, a rod of soft iron, its external polarity is greatly reduced; consequently, the external evidence of polarity is not a direct measure of the degree of rotation, nor of the total inherent polarity of its mass. We may have a great superficial external rotation superposed upon rotations of an opposite nature, as will be seen later, and thus the internal molecules of a magnet often act more or less as an external armature in closing its circle of attractions.

I have stated my belief that the molecule itself possesses its inherent polarity, which, like gravity, is an endowed quality for which we have no more reason to suspect the cause to be elementary electric currents than that elementary currents should be the cause of gravity, chemical affinity, or cohesion, and its polar power of crystallization, most of which are effected by an electric current. We have a certain analogy between electric currents and magnetism, but not so great as the analogy between the magnetic polarity of a molecule and its other endowed qualities. Magnetism, like chemical affinity, cohesion and crystallization, has its critical points. Faraday discovered that at red-yellow heat iron instantly lost its apparent polar magnetic power, to be as instantly restored at red heat, the critical point varying in iron, steel, &c., and being the lowest in nickel. This would be difficult to explain upon Ampère's theory, as we should have to admit the instant destruction or cessation of the elementary currents, to be again restored at a few degrees less temperature. It would be equally difficult to explain under my view, if it did not belong to a whole class of phenomena due to the possession by the molecules of various endowed qualities, of which chemistry and all our means of research can only teach us their critical points, without attempting to explain why, for instance, iron has a greater affinity for oxygen than gold. We know that is so; we know that the molecules of all matter are endowed with certain qualities having certain critical points, and I can see no reason for separating their magnetic inherent polarity from their numerous other qualities.

#### NEUTRALITY.

The apparatus needed for researches upon evident external polarity requires no very great skill or thought, but simply an apparatus to measure correctly the force of the evident repulsion or attraction. In the case of neutrality, however, the external polarity disappears, and we consequently require special apparatus, together with the utmost care and reflection in its use. From numerous researches previously made by means of the induction balance, the results of which I have already published, I felt convinced that in investigating the cause of magnetism and neutrality I should have in it the aid of the most powerful instrument of research ever brought to bear upon the molecular construction of iron, as, indeed, of all metals. It neglects all forces which do not produce a change in the molecular structure, and enables us to penetrate at once to the interior of a magnet or piece of iron, observing only its peculiar structure and the change which takes place during magnetization or apparent neutrality. The induction balance is effected by three distinct arrangements of molecular structure in iron and steel, by means of which we have apparent external neutrality.

If we take a flat bar of soft iron, of 30 or more cm. in length, and hold it vertically (giving, while thus held, a few torsions, vibrations—or, better still, a few slight blows with a wooden mallet—in order to allow its molecules to rotate with perfect freedom), we find its lower end to be of strong north polarity and its upper end south. On reversing the rod and repeating the vibrations, we find that its lower end has precisely a similar north polarity. Thus the iron is homogenous, and its polarity symmetrical. If we now magnetize this rod to produce a strong south pole at its lower portion, we can gradually reverse this polarity by the influence of earth's magnetism, by slightly tapping the upper extremity with a small wooden mallet. If we observe this rod by means of a direction needle at all parts, and successively during its gradual passage from one polarity to the other, there will be no sudden break into a haphazard arrangement, but a gradual and perfectly symmetrical rotation from one direction to that of the opposite polarity. If this rod is placed east and west, having, first, say, a north polarity to the right, we can gradually discharge or rotate the molecules to zero, and as gradually reverse the polarity by simply inclining the rod so as to be slightly influenced by earth's magnetism, and at no portion of this passage from one polarity to neutrality, and to that of the opposite name, will there be found a break of continuity of rotation or haphazard arrangement. If we rotate this rod slowly, horizontally or vertically, taking observations at each few degrees of rotation of an entire revolution, we find still the same gradual symmetrical change of polarity, and that its symmetry is as complete at neutrality as in evident polarity.

In all these cases there is no complete neutrality, the longitudinal polarity simply becoming transversal when the rod is east and west. If, in place of the rod, we take a small square soft-iron plate and allow its molecules freedom under the sole influence of the earth's magnetism, then we invariably find the polarity in the direction of the magnetic dip, no matter in what position it be held, and a sphere of soft iron could only be polarized in a similar direction. Thus we can never obtain complete external neutrality while the molecules have freedom and do not form an internal closed circle of mutual attractions, and, whatever theory we may adopt as to the cause of polarity in the molecule, such as Coulomb's, Poisson's, Ampère's, there can exist no haphazard arrangement in perfectly soft iron as long as it is free from all external causes except the influence of the earth; consequently, these theories are wrong in one of their most essential parts. We can, however, produce a closed circle of mutual attractions in iron and steel, producing complete neutrality as long as the structure is not destroyed by some stronger external directing influence. Oersted discovered that an external magnetic needle places itself perpendicular to an electric current; and we should expect that, if the molecules of an iron wire possessed

inherent polarity and could rotate, a similar effect would take place in the interior of the wire to that observed by Oersted. Wiedemann first remarked this effect, and it has been known as circular magnetism. This circle, however, consists really in each molecule having placed itself perpendicular to the current, simply obeying Oersted's law, and thus forming a complete circle in which the mutual attractions of the molecules forming that circle are satisfied. This wire becomes completely neutral, any previous symmetrical arrangement of polarity rotating to form its complete circle of attractions; and we can thus form in hard iron and steel a neutrality extremely difficult to break up or destroy. We have evident proof that this neutrality consists of a closed chain or circle, as by torsion we can partially deflect them on either side; thus from a perfect externally neutral wire, producing either polarity, by simple mechanical angular displacement of the molecules as by right or left handed torsion. If we magnetize a wire placed east and west, it will retain this polarity until freed by vibrations, as already remarked. If we pass an electric current through this magnetized wire, we can notice the gradual rotation of the molecules, and the formation of the circular neutrality. If we commence with a weak current, gradually increasing its strength, we can rotate them as slowly as may be desired. There is no sudden break or haphazard moment of neutrality; the movements to perfect zero are accomplished with perfect symmetry throughout.

We can produce a more perfect and shorter circle of attractions by the superposition of magnetism. If we magnetize a piece of steel or iron in a given direction with a strong magnetic directing power, the magnetism penetrates to a certain depth. If we slightly diminish the magnetizing power, and magnetize the rod in a contrary direction, we may reduce it to zero, by the superposition of an exterior magnetism upon one of a contrary name existing at a greater depth, and if we continue this operation, gradually diminishing the force at each reversal, we can easily superpose 10 or more distinct symmetrical arrangements, and, as their mutual attractions are satisfied in a shorter circle than in that produced by electricity, it is extremely difficult to destroy this formation when once produced. The induction balance affords also some reasons for believing that the molecules not only form a closed circle of attractions, but that they can mutually react upon each other, so as to close a circle of attractions as a double molecule. The experimental evidence, however, is not sufficient to dwell on this point, as the neutrality obtained by superposition is somewhat similar in its external effects. We can produce a perfectly symmetrical closed circle of attractions, by forming a steel wire into a closed circle 1 cm. in diameter, if this wire is well joined at its extremities by twisting and soldering. We can then magnetize this ring by slowly revolving it at the extremity of one pole of a strong permanent magnet, and, to avoid consequent poles at the part last touching the magnet, we should have a graduating wedge of wood, so that while revolving it may be gradually removed to greater distance. This wire will then contain no consequent points of external magnetism; it will be found perfectly neutral in all parts of its closed circle.

I have already shown that soft iron, when its molecules are allowed perfect freedom by vibration, invariably takes the polarity of the external directing influence, such as that of the earth, and it does so even with greater freedom under the influence of heat. Manufacturers of electro-magnets for telegraphic instruments are very careful to choose the softest iron and thoroughly anneal it, but very few recognize the importance as regards the position of the iron while annealing it under the earth's directing influence. The fact, however, has long since been observed. Doctor Hooker, 1684, remarked that steel or iron was magnetized when heated to redness and placed in the magnetic meridian. I have slightly varied this experiment by heating to redness three similar steel bars, two of which had been previously magnetized to saturation, and placed separately with contrary polarity as regards each other, the third being neutral. Upon cooling, these three bars were found to have identical and similar polarity. Thus the molecules of this most rigid material, cast steel, had become free at red heat, and rotated under the earth's magnetic influence, giving exactly the same force on each; consequently, the previous magnetization of two of these bars had neither augmented nor weakened the inherent polarity of their molecules. Soft iron gave under these conditions by far the greatest force, its inherent polarity being greater than that of steel. I have made numerous other experiments bearing upon the question of neutrality, but they all confirm those I have cited, which I consider afford ample evidence of the symmetrical arrangement of neutrality.

#### SUPERPOSED MAGNETISM.

Knowing that by torsion we can rotate or diminish magnetism, I was anxious to obtain by its means a complete rotation from north polarity to neutrality, and from neutrality to south polarity, or to completely reverse magnetic polarity by a slight right or left torsion. I have succeeded in doing this, and in obtaining strong reversal of polarities, by superposing one polarity given while the rod is under a right elastic torsion with another of the opposite polarity given under a left elastic torsion, the neutral point then being reached when the rod is free from torsion. The rod should be very strongly magnetized under its first or right-hand torsion, so that its interior molecules are rotated, or, in other words, magnetized to saturation; the second magnetization in the contrary sense and torsion should be feeble, so as only to magnetize the surface, or not more than one-half its depth; these can be easily adjusted to each other so as to form a complete polar balance of force. The apparatus needed is simply a good compound horse-shoe permanent magnet, 15 cm. long, having six or more plates, giving it a total thickness of at least 3 cm. We need a sufficiently powerful magnet, as I find that I obtain a more equal distribution of magnetism upon a rod or strip of iron by drawing it lengthwise over a single pole in a direction from that pole; we can then obtain saturation by repeated drawings, keeping

the same molecular symmetry in each experiment. In order to supply a slight elastic torsion when magnetizing rods or wires, I have found it convenient to attach two brass clamp keys to the extremities of the rods, or simply turn the ends at right angles, as shown in the following diagram, by which means we can apply an elastic twist or torsion while drawing the rod over the pole of the permanent magnet. We can thus superpose several and opposite symmetrical structures, producing a polar north and south as desired, greatly in excess of that possible under a single or even double magnetization, and by carefully adjusting the proportion of opposing magnetisms, so that both polarities have the same external force, the rod will be at perfect external neutrality when free from torsion.

If we now hold one end of this rod at a few centimeters distance from a magnetic directive needle, we find it perfectly neutral when free of torsion, but the slightest torsion right or left at once produces violent repulsion or attraction, according to the direction of the torsion given to the rod, the iron rod or strips of hoop iron which I use for this experiment being able, when at the distance of 5 cm. from the needle, to turn it instantly 90° on either side of its zero. The external neutrality that we can now produce at will is absolute, as it crosses the line of two contrary polarities, being similar to the zero of my electric sonometer, whose zero is obtained by the crossing of two opposing electric forces. This rod of iron retains its peculiar powers of reversal in a remarkable degree, a condition quite different to that of ordinary magnetization, for the same rod, when magnetized to saturation under a single ordinary magnetism, loses its evident magnetism by a few elastic torsions, as I have already shown; but when it is magnetized under the double torsion with its superposed magnetism, it is but slightly reduced by variations or numerous torsions, and I have found it impossible to render this rod again free from its double polar effects, except by strongly remagnetizing it to saturation with a single polarity. The superposed magnetism then becomes a single directive force, and we can then, by a few vibrations or torsions, reduce the rod to its ordinary condition. The effects of superposed magnetism and its double polarity I have produced in a variety of ways, such as by the electro-magnetic influence of coils, or in very soft iron simply by the directive influence of the earth's magnetism, reversing the rod and torsions when held in the magnetic meridian, these rods, when placed magnetic west, showing distinctly the double polar effects. It is remarkable, also, that we are enabled to superpose and obtain the maximum effects on thin strips of iron from  $\frac{1}{4}$  to  $\frac{1}{2}$  mm. in thickness, while in thicker rods we have far less effect, being masked by the comparatively neutral state of the interior, the exterior molecules then reacting upon those of the interior, allowing them to complete in the interior their circle of attractions.

I was anxious to obtain wires which would preserve this structure against the destructive influence of torsion and vibrations, so that I could constantly employ the same wires without the comparatively long and tedious process of preparation. Soft iron soon loses the structure, or becomes enfeebled, under the constant to-and-fro torsions requisite where we desire a constant change of polarity, as described later in the magnetic bells. Hard steel preserves its structure, but its molecular rigidity is so great that we obtain but mere traces of any change of polarity by torsion. I have found, however, that fine cast steel, untempered, of the kind employed by watch makers, is most suitable; these are generally sold in straight lengths of 30 cm. Wires 1 mm. in diameter should be used, and when it is desired to increase the force, several of these wires—say, nine or ten—should be formed into a single rod or bunch. The wire as sold is too rigid to give its maximum of molecular rotation effect. We must, therefore, give it two entire turns or twists to the right, and strongly magnetize it on the north pole of the magnet while under torsion. We must again repeat this operation in the contrary direction, after restoring the wire to its previous position, giving now two entire turns to the left, and magnetizing it on the south pole. On restoring the wire to its original place, it will be extremely flexible, and we may now suppose several polarities under contrary torsions, as already described. The power of these wires, if properly prepared, is most remarkable, being able to reverse their polarity under torsion, as if they were completely saturated, and they preserve this power indefinitely if not touched by a magnet.

It would be extremely difficult to explain the action of the rotative effects obtained in these wires under any other theory than that which I have advanced, and the absolute external neutrality that we obtain in them when the polarities are changing we know, from their structure, to be perfectly symmetrical. I was anxious to show, upon the reading of this paper, some mechanical movement produced by molecular rotation; consequently, I have arranged two bells that are struck alternately by a polarized armature put in motion by the double polarized rod I have already described, but whose position at 3 cm. distant from the axes of the armature remains invariably the same. The magnetic armature consists of a horizontal light steel bar suspended by its central axis; the bells are thin wine glasses, giving a clear musical tone, loud enough, by the force with which they are struck, to be clearly heard at some distance. The armature does not strike these alternately by a pendulous movement, as we may easily strike only one continuously, the friction and inertia of the armature causing its movements to be perfectly dead-beat when not driven by some external force, and it is kept in its zero position by a strong directive magnet placed beneath its axis. The mechanical power obtained is extremely evident, and is sufficient to put the sluggish armature in rapid motion, striking the bells six times per second, and with a power sufficient to produce tones loud enough to be clearly heard in all parts of the hall of the society. As this is the first direct transformation of molecular motion into mechanical movement, I am happy to show it on this occasion. There

is nothing remarkable in the bells themselves, as they evidently could be rung if the armature was surrounded by a coil and worked by an electric current from a few cells. The marvel, however, is in the small steel superposed magnetic wire producing by slight elastic torsions from a single wire, 1 mm. in diameter, sufficient force from mere molecular rotation to entirely replace the coil and electric current.

#### ELASTIC NATURE OF THE ETHER SURROUNDING THE MAGNETIC MOLECULES.

During these researches I have remarked a peculiar property of magnetism, viz., that not only can the molecules be rotated through any degree of arc to its maximum or saturation, but that, while it requires a comparatively strong force to overcome its rigidity or resistance to rotation, it has a small field of its own through which it can move with excessive freedom, trembling, vibrating or rotating through a small degree with infinitely less force than would be required to rotate it permanently on either side. This property is so marked and general that we can observe it without any special iron or apparatus. Let us take a flat rod of ordinary hoop iron, 30 or more centimeters in length. If, while holding this vertically, we give freedom to its molecules by torsions, vibrations—or, better still, by a few blows with a wooden mallet upon its upper extremity—we find, as is well known, that its lower portion is strongly north and its upper south. If we reverse the rod, we now find it neutral at both extremities. We might here suppose that the earth's directing force had rotated the molecules to zero or transversely, which in reality it has done, but only to the limit of their comparatively free motion; for if we reverse the rod to its original position, its previous strong polarity reappears at both extremities; thus the central point of its free motion is inclined to the rod, giving by its free motion great symmetrical inclination and polarity in one direction, but when reversed the inclination is reduced to zero.

This property of comparative freedom, and the rotation of its center of action, can be demonstrated in a variety of ways. One remarkable example of it consists in the telephone. All those who are thoroughly acquainted with electro-magnetism, and know that it requires measurable time to charge an electro-magnet to saturation (about  $\frac{1}{10}$  of a second for those employed in telegraphy), were surprised that the telephone could follow the slightest change of timbre, requiring almost innumerable changes of force per second. I believe the free rotation I have spoken of through a limited range explains its remarkable sensitiveness and rapidity of action, and, according to this view, it would also explain why loud-sounding telephones can never repeat all delicacy of timbre that is easily done with those only requiring a force comprised in the critical limits of its free rotation. This property, I have found, has a distinct critical value for each class of iron, and I propose soon to publish researches upon the molecular construction of steel and iron, in which I have made use of this very property as a guide to the quality of the iron itself. The elastic rotation (in a limited space) of a molecule differs entirely from that known as mechanical elasticity. In perfectly soft iron we have feeble mechanical elasticity, while in tempered steel we have that elasticity at its maximum. The contrary takes place as regards molecular elasticity. In tempered steel the molecules are extremely rigid, and in soft iron its molecular elasticity is at its maximum. Its free motion differs entirely from that given it by torsion or stress. We may assume that a molecule is surrounded by continuous ether, more of the nature of a jelly than of that of a gas; in such a medium a molecule might freely vibrate through small arcs, but a rotation extending beyond its critical limit would involve a much greater expenditure of force.

The discovery of this comparatively free rotation of molecules, by means of which, as I have shown, we can (without in any degree disturbing the external mechanical elasticity of the mass) change the axes of their free motion in any direction desired, has led me into a series of researches which have only indirectly any relation with the theory of magnetism. I was extremely desirous, however, of finding an experimental evidence which in itself should demonstrate all portions of the theory, and the following experiment, I believe, answers this purpose: Let us take a square soft-iron rod, 5 mm. in diameter by 30 or more centimeters in length, and force the molecules, by aid of blows from a wooden mallet, as previously described, to have their centers of free motion in one direction; the rod will (as already shown) have polarity at both ends when held vertically, but if reversed both ends become completely neutral. If now we turn the rod to its first position, in which it shows strong polarity, and magnetize it while held vertically, by drawing the north pole of a sufficiently powerful permanent magnet from its upper to its lower extremity, we find that this rod, instead of having south polarity at its lower portion, as we should expect from the direction of the magnetization, is completely neutral at both extremities; but if we reverse the rod, its fullest free powers of magnetization now appear in the position where it was previously neutral. Thus, by magnetization, we have completely rotated its free path of action, and find that we can rotate this path as desired in any direction by the application of a sufficient directing power. If we take a rod as described, with its polarities evident when held vertically, and its neutrality also evident when its ends are reversed in the same magnetic field, we find that its polarity is equal at both ends, and that it is every way symmetrical with a perfect magnet. If we gradually reverse the ends and take observations of its condition through each degree of arc passed over, we find an equal symmetrical diminution of evident external polarity until we arrive at neutrality, when it has no external trace of inherent polarity, but its inherent polarity at once becomes evident by a simple return to its former position. Thus the rod has passed through all the changes from polarity to neutrality, and from neutrality to polarity, and these changes have taken place with complete symmetry.

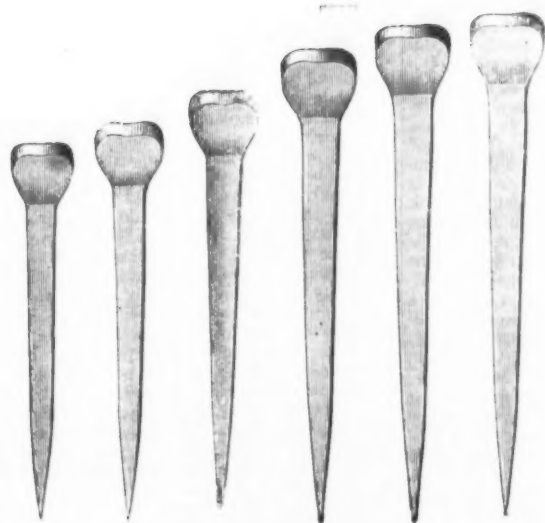
The limits of this paper do not allow me to speak of the numerous theoretical evi-



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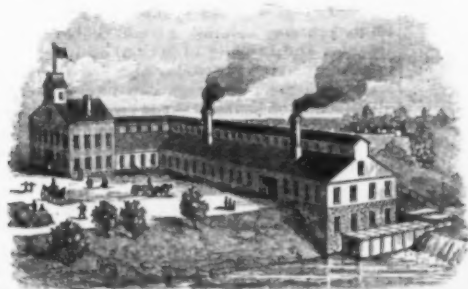
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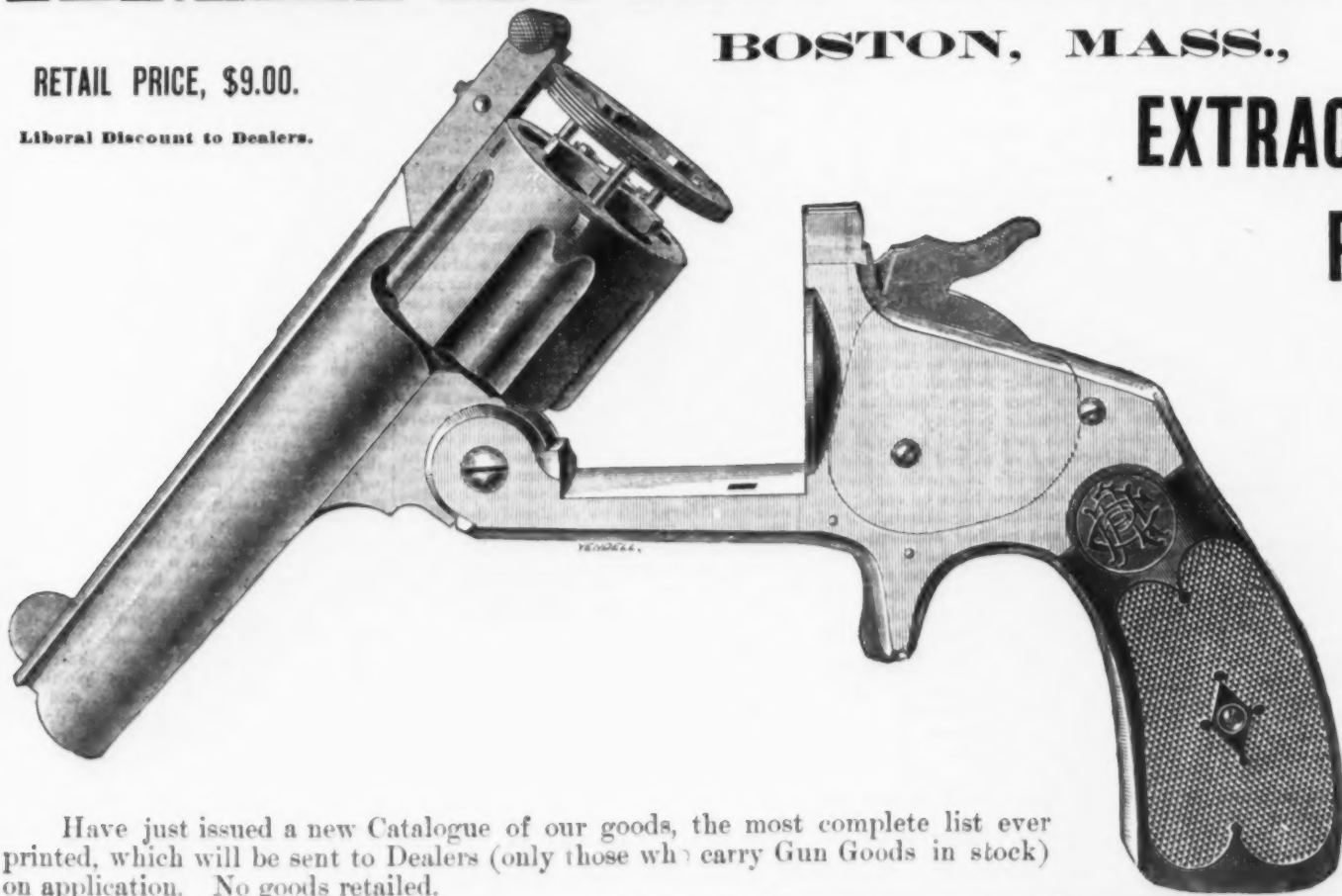


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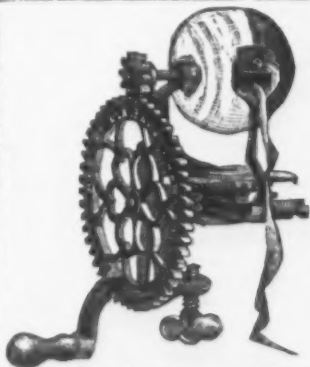
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dences as shown by the use of my induction balance. I believe, however, that I have cited already experimental evidences to show that what has been attributed to coercive force is really due to molecular freedom or rigidity; that in inherent molecular polarity we have a fact admitted by Coulomb, Poisson, Ampère, De la Rive, Weber, Du Moncel, Weidemann and Maxwell, and that we have also experimental evidence of molecular rotation and of the symmetrical character of polarity and neutrality. The experiments which I have brought forward in this paper, in addition to those mentioned in my paper read before the Royal Society, will, I hope, justify me in having advanced a theory of magnetism which I believe in every portion allows at least experimental evidences of its probable truth.

### The Metal Exchange.

At a meeting of the Exchange, on the 29th inst., the following amendments were made to the by-laws:

Add to Art. IV a new Sec. 7. "No salaries or compensation of any kind shall be paid to any officer, manager, employee or committee-man, except such as are provided in the by-laws or trade rules, or as may be fixed by a vote of the Board of Managers."

Add to Art. V, Sec. 1. "Any vacancy in the Arbitration Committee may be filled by the Board of Managers, voting by ballot, until the next annual election."

Add to Art. VI a new Sec. 13. "Should special exigencies require, the President shall have the right to appoint committees and fill vacancies on committees *ad interim*, to act until the regular appointments are made."

Change numbers of Articles VII, VIII and IX to VIII, IX and X, respectively, and insert the following as new Article VII:

Sec. 1. It shall be the duty of any member failing to meet his contracts made under the rules of the Exchange with or to any other member of this Exchange, to immediately notify the president in writing of such failure (unless otherwise agreed upon by the contracting parties), and the president shall thereupon cause the following notice to be posted on the official bulletin:

#### NOTICE.

Members of this Exchange are hereby notified of the failure of ..... to meet contracts on this Exchange. All contracts with him (or them) must therefore be closed, as provided in Article VII, Section 3, of the by-laws.

Sec. 2. In case any member so failing shall not notify the president, as thus provided, it shall be the duty of the Complaint Committee, upon satisfactory proof to them of such failure being made, to notify the president in writing, and the president shall thereupon immediately call a meeting of the Board of Managers, who shall proceed to investigate the case in the same manner as provided in cases of complaints, in Article VI, Section 8, of these by-laws. In case of satisfactory proof of failure, the president shall be instructed by the Board of Managers to post the same notice as provided in Section 1, and such member may be suspended or expelled at the same or any subsequent meeting of the Board of Managers, by a vote of two-thirds of the members present.

Sec. 3. All outstanding contracts between members so failing and other members of the Exchange, in cases where official notice of failure has been given, must be closed by settlement at the average market price of the day of such official notice of failure. Disputes as to such market price shall be finally determined by the Committee on Trade.

Substitute for Article IX the following:

#### ARTICLE IX.—AMENDMENT OF BY-LAWS.

These by-laws shall not be altered or amended unless the proposed alteration or amendment has been presented to the Board of Managers at a regular meeting, and approved by a two-thirds vote at a subsequent meeting, and ratified by a majority vote of members voting at a ballot taken for the purpose, of which ten days' notice shall have been given, stating specifically the alteration or amendment proposed.

The secretary has issued the following notice, under date of September 1: "The Metal Exchange will begin to-day to receive from the Maritime Association reports of arrivals of vessels and copies of manifests. Seventeen applications for membership at \$500 have been received, leaving 32 vacancies, which must be applied for by 3 o'clock to-day, after which the initiation fee will be \$1000."

### INDUSTRIAL ITEMS.

#### MAINE.

The Bath foundry is crowded with work. It has four or five tons of work to do for the Goss Marine Iron Works, including anvil plates weighing 1600 pound each, that are about done, and four large "bearing boxes" for the big engine. They have also 10 large Adir ship's pumps to make immediately.

#### MASSACHUSETTS.

The new gun factory of the Davenport Arms Company, East Douglas, will, at the outset, be a building 30 x 100 feet, two stories high, and will employ 25 or 30 hands. The gun is the invention of Mr. Wm. H. Davenport, of Providence, a man of 30 years' experience in the business, who has a patent on breech-loading shot guns, acknowledged by competent judges to be a great improvement over any other gun made. The business will include the manufacture of Davenport's gun barrels and his patent breech-loading shot guns, which patent also applies to his two hammerless guns, all of which will be exclusively made at this factory.

The management of the Taunton Iron Works has been given to Mr. W. H. Swanton, who for six years has been the Boston agent of this company, and in his new capacity will give his personal attention to its affairs.

Matters in the Taunton Copper Manufacturing Company are progressing finely under the new dispensation.

The new tack factory of Ripley & Bartlett, Plymouth, is nearly ready for business. The main room for the machines is nearly 85 feet

in length on the northerly front, with a varying width of about 35 feet. In the rear of the principal apartment is the engine-room, under the same roof, but guarded from fire by a thickness of five courses of brick from the exterior woodwork. Here is to be an engine of 25 horse-power. The horizontal tubular boiler, 17 feet long, is now being set, and a chimney stack 50 feet high is well under way. Back of the engine-room is the scaling-room, with two ventilators to carry off the carbonic-acid fumes. Near this there are rooms for storage and general purposes. The front face of the building is of two stories, the second being in one hall about 30 x 32 feet for a packing-room.

Webster & Crosby, of Worcester, dealers in scrap iron and old metal, also manufacturers of Babbitt metal, are steadily increasing their trade. A specialty with them is the manufacture of soft-metal hammers for machinists' use, in six sizes, with iron handles and molds.

The Morgan Car Spring Company, Worcester, have ordered a 50-horse-power Armstrong & Sims Co. engine.

#### CONNECTICUT.

The rapid increase in the business of the Charles Parker Company, of Meriden, has necessitated the erection of several additions to their factories. Permits have been granted for a brick addition, three stories high, 58 x 83 feet, to the main building. To the plating and buffing department a wooden addition, 60 x 21 feet, will be made, and to the coffee-mill department an addition of 57 x 30 feet will be built. Brick additions will also be made to the boiler-room, and several other improvements are contemplated.

At New Haven, on the 2d inst., a disastrous fire occurred in a large brick building running from No. 22 to No. 30 Artisan street. The fire, which commenced in a lumber yard in the rear of the building, was caused, it is believed, by a spark from a passing locomotive. The building was of brick, four stories high, and was occupied by the New Haven Staple Mfg. Company, the New Haven Mfg. Company, the Strong Cartridge Company, John A. Smith, machinists' tools and manufacturers' supplies, and Charles Brown, scroll sawing, wood turning, &c. The loss is estimated at \$100,000; insurance about \$65,000.

#### NEW YORK.

The New York, West Shore and Buffalo Railroad are driving the machinery in their new shops in a novel and effective manner. Instead of belting from the engine to the line shaft in the usual manner, each shaft is driven by an independent engine coupled directly to it. To effect this the arched doorway in the central brick partition is strengthened by piers, and a second arched opening left over it similar to a transom. The floor of this opening forms the foundation for a Westinghouse engine, which is set with its centers exactly in line with the shafting, to which it is coupled on each side. No regular engineer is employed, but the engine is considered a part of the shafting and is in charge of the wiper. The Westinghouse Machine Company have so far fitted up their shops at New Durham, N. J., with a 12 x 12; at Kingston and Syracuse, N. Y., each with a 9 x 9, and at Schenectady with a 7 x 7.

#### PENNSYLVANIA.

The past month workmen have been engaged in removing the old boilers of No. 4 Furnace of the Crane Iron Works, Catasauqua, which have been superseded by the new boilers located on the ground near the engine-house. These elevated boilers have been in use since 1849, and when recently in use were insured by the Boiler Insurance Company for the full pressure required, the inspector of which company pronounced them as being made of most excellent iron and capable of carrying the full requirement of steam.

Fifteen additional benches will be erected in the foundry of the Penn Hardware Works, Reading, for the employment of that number of new molders.

It is reported that the Vanderbilt people have purchased the Wister Furnace property at Harrisburg, for the car shops of the new line, for \$60,000.

On Friday of last week the Phoenix Iron Company made the first experiment in rolling steel, and it was entirely successful. An angle bar 3 x 4 was turned out. The company intend making a business of this, and will go into it for the purpose of supplying steel for shipbuilding. It is contemplated in the near future to erect steel converting works. This will give work to a large number of men. The change in the business necessitates this move, as steel is fast superseding iron in the manufactures, and it does not pay to buy steel ingots for rolling when it is possible to manufacture them.

Repairs have been commenced at the Port Clinton Rolling Mill, which has been idle over a year.

At the State Department last week a charter was issued to the Clymer Iron Company, of Reading, with a capital of \$150,000. This company was incorporated in May, 1873, but at a recent meeting of the stockholders it was decided to apply for a new charter under the provisions of the new constitution.

No. 3 blast furnace of the Phoenix Iron Company, for the week ending August 16 beat all her former records, by turning out 478.26 gross tons of pig iron. To do this about 906 tons of iron ore, 429 tons of limestone and 1025 tons of coal, a total of 2410 tons of material, were required.

The rolling mill at Gibraltar, Berks County, has stopped for repairs. The work of tearing out the old machinery has begun, preparatory to putting in new machinery. The water-power will be used to run the shears. The mill will be made larger, and it will require several months until the mill is ready to resume.

The Lancaster Watch Company, which suspended operations several weeks ago, owing to financial embarrassment, has resumed, sufficient additional capital having been pledged to insure the successful operation of the works in future.

The additional blocks which the Gautier steel department of the Cambria Iron Company have recently put in are operated by a 100-horse-power Westinghouse engine.

#### PITTSBURGH AND VICINITY.

The Linden Steel Company, Limited, have just completed their 20-inch plate and sheet mill. This, with their 18-inch plate and sheet mill, 18-inch bar mill, 10-inch merchant mill and their large blooming mill, gives them admirable facilities for filling all orders in their line promptly. The company certainly deserve congratulation for the progress they have made since their organization.

The work of rebuilding the burned portion at the works of Everson, Macrum & Co. is progressing, and will be finished in a few weeks. The bar and guide rolls are in this portion. The first repairs after the fire were made to the engine and boilers, and the sheet rolls have been set in motion on triple turn.

The Ihmsen Glass Company, on the South Side, are making some great alterations to their factory, which will be ready to be lighted next month. The Atterbury Glass Company's works, on the same side, will be set in motion next Monday.

Hussey, Howe & Co. have ordered a second automatic engine of the Westinghouse Machine Company for use in their rolling mill. It is of 125 horse-power. They have had in use one of the same size for over a year, day and night, which is coupled direct to a 6-inch three-high train of r-lls, rolling steel. It makes 340 revolutions, and has been indicated as high as 180 horse-power.

The certificate of organization of the Pittsburgh Plate Glass Company has been filed in the Recorder's office. The capital stock is \$600,000, divided into 6000 shares of the par value of \$100 each. The works of the company are to be located in East Deer township, where 100 acres of property, upon which are erected suitable buildings, have been purchased. The shareholders are Edward Ford, 2850; Emory L. Ford, 500, and Albert E. Hughes, 100 shares, all of Creighton, Pa.; James H. Shields, New York, 250 shares; John Scott, 1000; John Pittsairn, Jr., 1000; Miller & Nelson, 200, and Charles W. Batchelor, 100 shares, all of Pittsburgh. The property purchased belonged to the New York City Plate Glass Company, and there are two natural gas wells upon it, which will be used in the process of manufacturing glass. The works are located at Creighton Station, on the West Penn Railroad. The sale amounts to but little more than a change of name.

#### VIRGINIA.

According to the *Virginian*, the Low Moor Furnace, of the Low Moor Iron Company, went into its second blast September 3, 1882. From that date to January 1, 1883, it made 817 tons of pig iron, and from January 1 to July 31, 1883, it made 23,218 tons, making an output of 32,035 tons in the 312 days from September 23, 1882, to July 31, 1883, or an average of 102.7 tons for each day of the blast to date named. This first built of the large blast furnaces of Virginia is now working in a most satisfactory manner, turning out daily from 115 to 120 tons of high-grade pig iron, about half of it No. 1 and half No. 2.

#### OHIO.

Col. A. L. Conger, receiver of the Akron Cutlery Works, sold the works, including machinery, stock, &c., last week. The property was purchased by Charles W. F. Dick, for \$10,300. A new company will be organized and the works again operated.

New machinery is being put in by the Falls Rivet Company, Cuyahoga Falls, made necessary by the increase of business.

The work of shipping the machinery of the Canal Dover Rolling Mill to Niles, by the Reeves Brothers, is going rapidly forward.

The Struthers Furnace, which is part of the iron plant of Brown, Bonnell & Co., is still banked and will probably not be started until prices advance.

At Columbus, last Saturday, was incorporated the Cleveland Safe Company—capital stock, \$50,000—with A. M. Clalin, Thos. Pratt, Levi T. Scofield, W. H. Dunn and John Coon as incorporators.

A new sheet mill of the New York and Ohio Iron and Steel Company, at Ironton, is running double turn.

Monitor Furnace has been banked up.

Work at the new Kelly Nail Mill, Ironton, is progressing rapidly, and considerable of the machinery in the rolling department has been set up.

#### ILLINOIS.

The Chicago Screw Company are purchasing additional machinery for their works.

The McCormick Harvesting-Machine Company, of Chicago, are taking their annual inventory, and are cleaning up the machinery in their works preparatory to starting on their next year's business.

Mr. E. T. Hutchinson, late of the Chicago Tack Company, at Grand Crossing, is erecting a large and substantial building, to be used as a tack factory, on South Chicago avenue, near the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railroad tracks.

The Union Foundry and Pullman Car-Wheel Works, of Chicago, have a contract to furnish the structural iron for the new Pullman office building in that city. These works are melting about 100 tons of pig iron a day, and will at once take up the manufacture of the Shaw locomotive for standard and narrow-gauge roads.

Parties have been at Grand Crossing lately with a view of starting up a new sewing-machine factory in the old Wilson factory. They expect to be running by November.

The Elgin National Watch Company, of Elgin, have made a very sensible provision against accidental breakages of shafting, &c., about the works. They have purchased a Westinghouse engine of 40 horse-power, which is kept as a relay, and, on occasion, is

hauled to any part of the factory, as needed, bolted to the floor, connected to the nearest steam-pipe, belted to the shaft in any convenient manner by the use of split pulleys, and set to work. Meanwhile the necessary repairs to the shafting are perfected. The company also have two other Westinghouse engines of 30 and 40 horse-power at regular service in other parts of their works.

The blast furnaces of the Joliet Steel Company are running steadily. The converting mill and rail mill, which started up on the 23d ult., are making 175 tons of rails at a turn, or 350 tons every 24 hours. This company intend making some important improvements to their converting mill before long, and are at present employing 800 men. —*Chicago Industrial Wo. Id.*

#### MISSOURI.

The Brownell & Wight Car Company, of St. Louis, have added a new steam hammer to their machine-shop plant. They are very busy on street cars.

F. Niedringhaus & Co. are very busy at their Granite Lion Rolling Mills. The Whitman Agricultural Company, of St. Louis, are very busy on hay-presses and other agricultural machinery, and are very much behind on their orders.

The Brown & Adams Manufacturing Company, of St. Louis, contemplate an increase on their capital stock, and will probably make extensive additions and improvements to their works.

#### MICHIGAN.

It is announced by the Fond du Lac papers that the blast-furnace there, built by C. J. L. Meyer some 12 years ago, and idle ever since, will go into blast on October 1 next. This furnace is one of the finest in the country, though we cannot help regarding its location as a mistake, as both ore and fuel will have to be brought to it, and from something of a distance, while, there being no home consumption for the metal produced, that will also have to stand its share of freight charges before reaching the consumer. Labor may be cheaper there than at most furnace locations, it is true, but with modern blast-furnaces that item in the cost of producing pig is by no means the most formidable; and the Fond du Lac furnace is, we take it, a very "modern" concern, having been built by a lumberman and manufacturer who—albeit a shrewd business man and brimful of enterprise—had no previous practical familiarity with the iron business. —*Marquette Mining Journal.*

The Martel Furnace, at St. Ignace, has been doing excellent work since going into blast on August 1.

#### COLORADO.

The Bessemer Rail Mill, at Pueblo, have taken a contract for steel rails for the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad, which will keep them busy for three months. The company have just finished a supply of rails for the Denver and Rio Grande extension.

### Smoke Abatement in Cincinnati.

Mr. Clement Olhaber, who some time since resigned the difficult and thankless office of Smoke Inspector of Cincinnati, has been instrumental in securing a better wording of the law for the suppression of the smoke nuisance, and the amendment is now under consideration in the City Councils. The following is the text of the proposed new law:

An Ordinance to Amend an Ordinance entitled "An Ordinance to Abate the Smoke Nuisance and to Provide for an Inspector," passed November 2, A. D., 1881.

Be it ordained by the Common Council of the city of Cincinnati, that the ordinance entitled "An Ordinance to Abate the Smoke Nuisance and to Provide for an Inspector," passed November 2, A. D., 1881, be, and the same is, hereby amended as follows:

SECTION 1. That every furnace employed or to be employed in the city of Cincinnati, and every furnace upon railroad engines used for switching or yard purpose within the city limits, shall be so constructed, or, if already constructed, shall be so altered, and shall have attached thereto efficient smoke preventives, as to produce the most perfect combustion of fuel or material from which smoke results, and so as to prevent the production and emission of all smoke therefrom, so far as the same is possible; and if any person or persons, association or corporation being the owner, lessee, or having the control of such furnace, shall hereafter within the city limits use or allow any such furnace to be used which shall not be so constructed, or, if already constructed, shall not be so altered, or shall fail to have attached thereto efficient smoke preventives, so as to produce the most perfect combustion of the fuel or material from which smoke results, and so as to prevent the production and emission of all smoke therefrom, so far as the same is possible, every such person or persons, association or corporation shall be deemed guilty of an offense under this ordinance, and upon conviction of such offense before the Police Court of this city, shall be fined in any sum not less than \$20 nor more than \$50, and for each repetition of such offense shall be fined not less than \$50, nor more than \$100, the fine thus collected to be paid into the City Treasury to and for the Street Repairing Fund. Provided, however, that no conviction shall be had under this section for failure to alter any furnace already constructed or to have attached thereto efficient smoke preventives until 30 days shall have elapsed after the passage of this ordinance.

SECTION 2 (a). That every person having charge of the igniting, making, stoking, feeding or attending any furnace or furnace fire in the city of Cincinnati, whether stationary or used upon railroads, shall so ignite, make, stoke, feed and attend such furnace fire, and keep such furnace in such order and repair that the least possible smoke shall be produced and emitted therefrom, and shall keep each and every appliance attached to such furnace for the prevention of smoke in efficient order and operation and properly attached, and any person having charge of the igniting, making,

stoking, feeding, or attending any such furnace fire who shall fail or neglect to so ignite, make, stoke, feed or attend such furnace fire, that the least possible smoke shall be produced or emitted therefrom, or shall fail or neglect to keep each and every appliance attached to such furnace for the prevention of smoke in efficient order and operation and properly attached, shall be deemed guilty of an offense under this ordinance, and on conviction of such offense before the Police Court of Cincinnati, be fined in any sum not exceeding \$50. All fines thus collected to be applied into the city treasury to and for the credit of the Street Repairing Fund.

SECTION 3 (b). It shall be the duty of the Mayor and members of the police force of Cincinnati, in connection with the Inspector of Smoke, to keep constant watch and supervision over all places where smoke is produced or emitted, and such police force shall notify the Inspector of Smoke of all such places, and, in connection with such inspector, shall enforce a strict compliance with and obedience to this and all other ordinances of the city of Cincinnati in relation to the prevention of smoke.

SECTION 4. Section 1 of the Ordinance No. 3263, passed November 2, 1881, be and the same is hereby repealed.

SECTION 5. This ordinance shall take effect on and after the earliest period allowed by law.

**Slack as a Pudding Fuel.**—The Pittsburgh puddlers are showing decided objection to the use of slack in their furnaces. The *Times* of that city says: The puddlers are kicking against the use of slack in the puddling furnaces, as it entails, so they claim, considerable extra work. Whether the move of the puddlers is a sympathetic one, growing out of the constant complaints of the miners, or whether they think they see a favorable opportunity of having the slack thrown out by refusing to use it, and thereby encourage the miners to insist on being paid for producing it, thus tending to make its use unpleasant for the manufacturers, remains to be determined. In any event, it is a fact that the growing increase of its use has been viewed with alarm by the puddlers; so much so that at their last convention it is alleged that an effort was made to put the convention on record as being radically opposed to slack. It is even asserted that a date was fixed for making a demand on the manufacturers in the first and sixth districts, which includes Pittsburgh, Youngstown and vicinity, to discontinue the use of slack in the puddling furnaces. Oliver Bros. & Phillips have taken the lead in remodeling their mills so as to utilize slack exclusively. The men have taken the matter in hand and have brought it to the attention of the firm. It appears that the puddlers in the Tenth street mill are divided on the matter, and the regular mill committee have been ignored. In view of the extensive improvements which Oliver Bros. & Phillips have introduced, the point is raised that the objections, if any, ought to have been raised before the firm expended thousands of dollars. The fact that the coal bills have recently been more closely looked into by the iron manufacturers is one reason why they take the slack, which costs but a trifle. Immediate action is expected on the part of the puddlers.

According to a correspondent of the *London Times*, there are now altogether six lighthouses and one light vessel in the Red Sea; four of these are in the Gulf of Suez, and of the remaining three, one—that upon the Brother Islands—is not yet lighted. Between the Dardanelles Shoal and Perim Island, a distance of more than 800 miles, there is no light at all; and though for 600 miles, after leaving the Dardanelles, there are no dangers in the track of steamships, after that the sea is studded with islands and rocks which render the navigation difficult and dangerous, especially on dark and hazy nights. The places which are more especially dangerous are Jibbel Zukur Island and the Mokha Shoals. On Jibbel Zukur Island there are now the remains of three or four large steamers which have been wrecked there during the last year or two. By placing a lighthouse on Abu Ait Island, three miles to the eastward of the northern point of Jibbel Zukur, and a light vessel on the Mokha Shoals, the navigation of this most dangerous part of the Red Sea would be rendered much more safe and easy. For homeward-bound ships there is also a great necessity for a light on the southeast end of the Shadwan Island, as a guide to the entrance of the Straits of Jubal. With the great increase of the traffic through the Red Sea which has taken place during the last few years, it is now high time that there should be some improvement in the lighting of this great highway to the East. We may point out that the Canal Company are now extensively adopting Pintsch's fixed and floating gas-lights for the canal entrance and elsewhere, and no doubt will soon employ them in the Red Sea, where they are very much wanted.

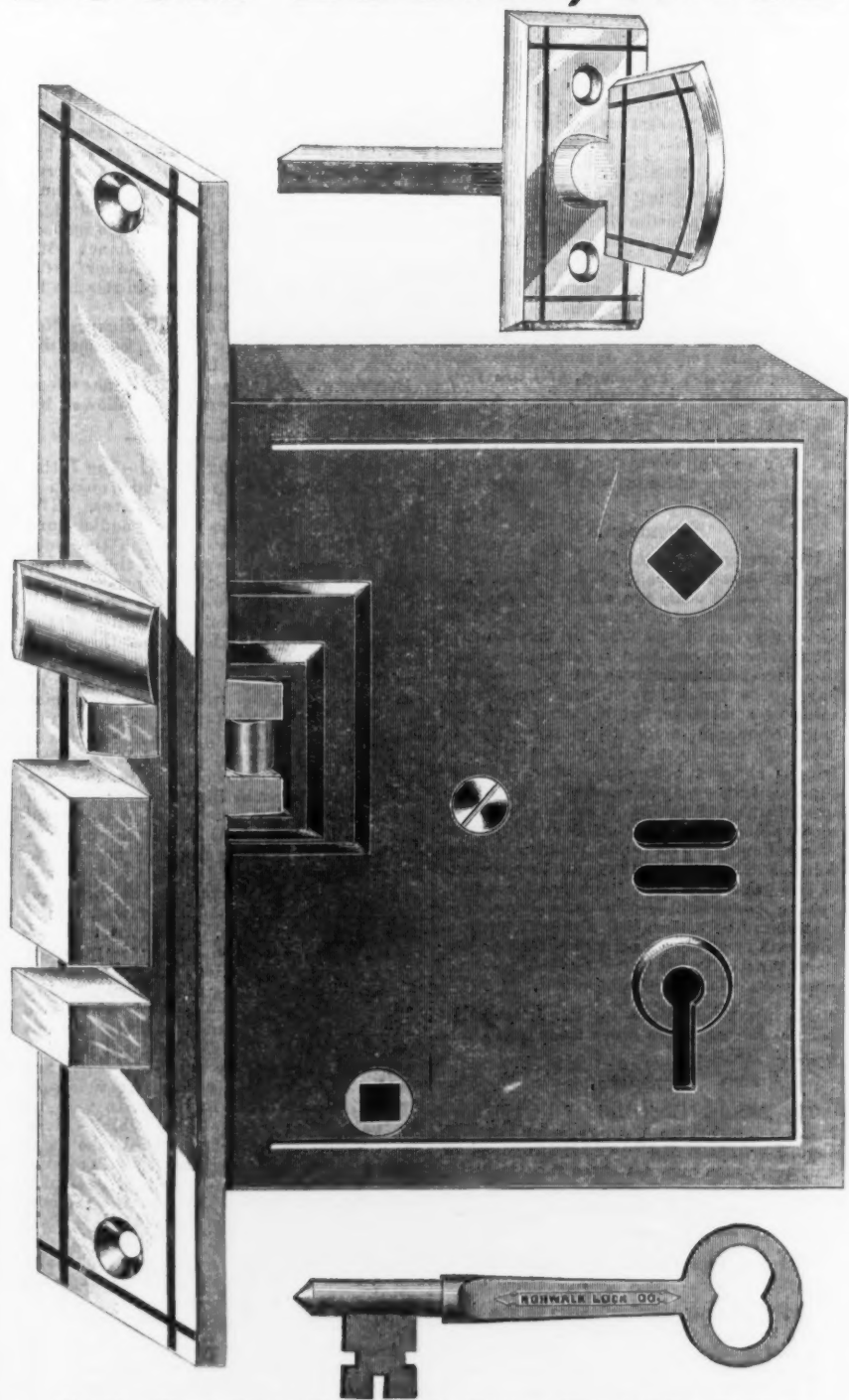
We find it stated in a contemporary that recent investigations relative to the condition of the wire-rod trade in Great Britain and on the Continent point to a decided falling off in the English trade—the Continental industry, on the other hand, holding out flattering prospects. In support of this view it may be remembered that during the last twelve years no less than twenty English firms in the trade, including some of much importance, have suspended payment, and of the remainder it is very doubtful whether anything like a fair percentage have made much money. On the other hand, there have not been more than half-a-dozen failures among German firms, and these have been far more than counterbalanced by the erection of new works and the extension of those already existing. Every year there is evidence of fresh inroads on British trade by German houses. An English firm fails, but no new house enters to take its place, and neither does the bulk of the business remain with producers. It is secured by the Germans. In fact, the stoppages above mentioned represent a dead loss to English trade, for not only have no new works been started to supply their place, but the existing firms have rather reduced than increased their production, notwithstanding that the consumption of wire has increased enormously.



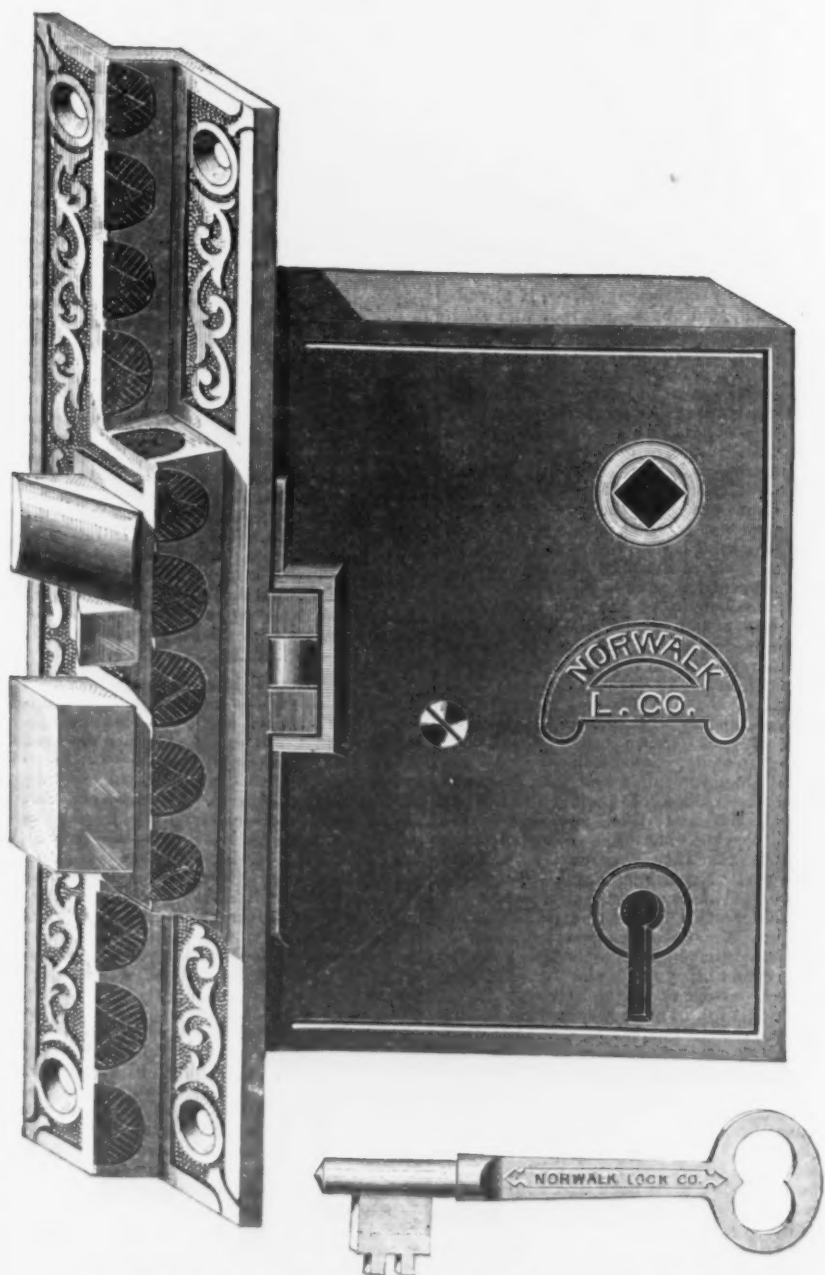
# NORWALK LOCK COMPANY,

SOUTH NORWALK, CONN., MANUFACTURERS OF

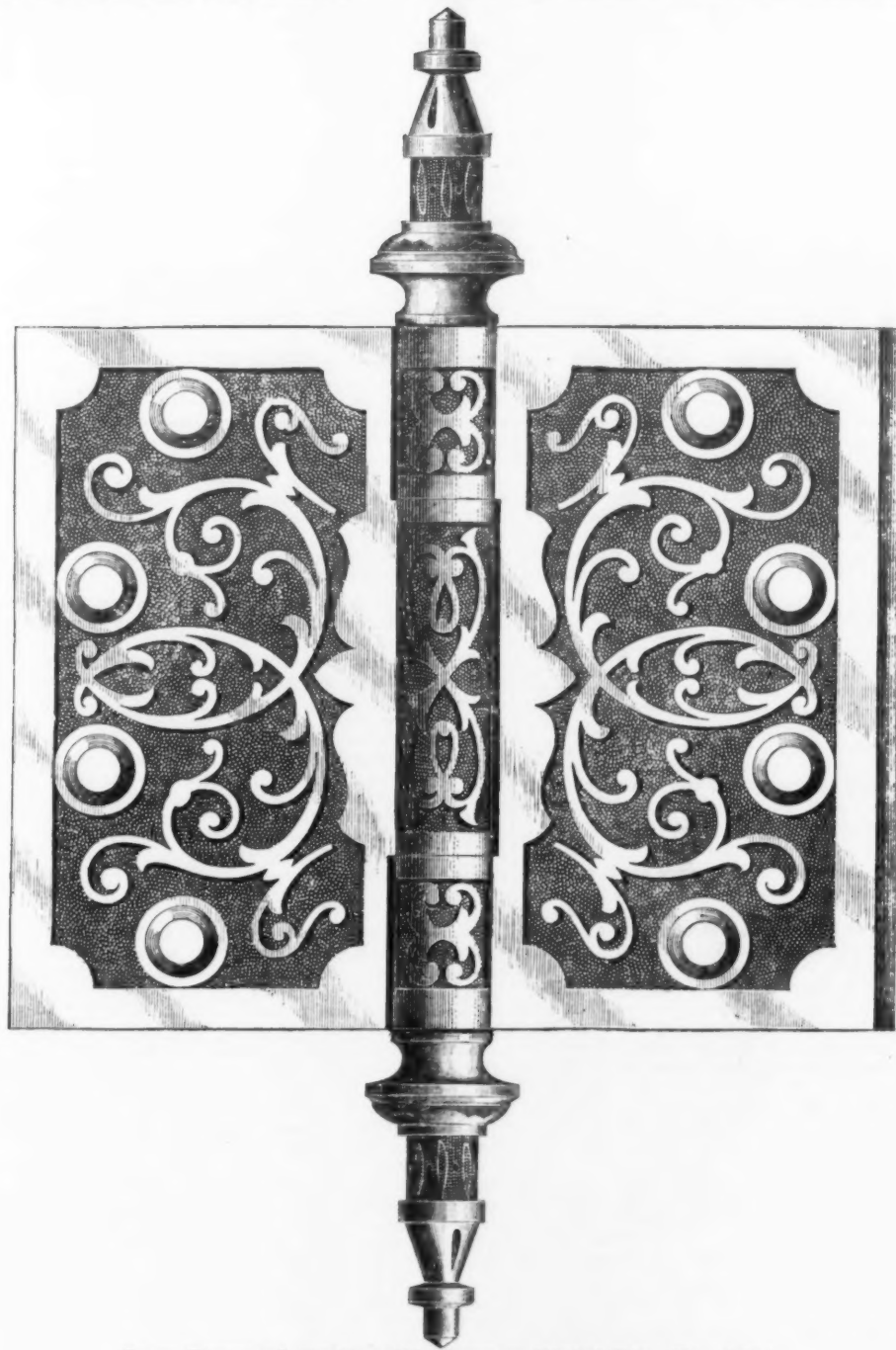
## DOOR LOCKS, KNOBS and BUILDERS' HARDWARE.



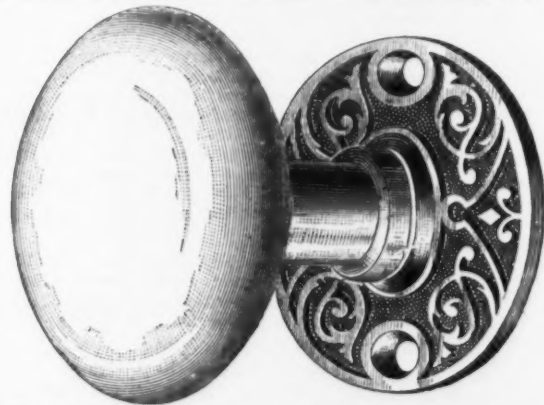
Mortise Knob Lock, No. x7587. Bronze Front, Line Pattern.



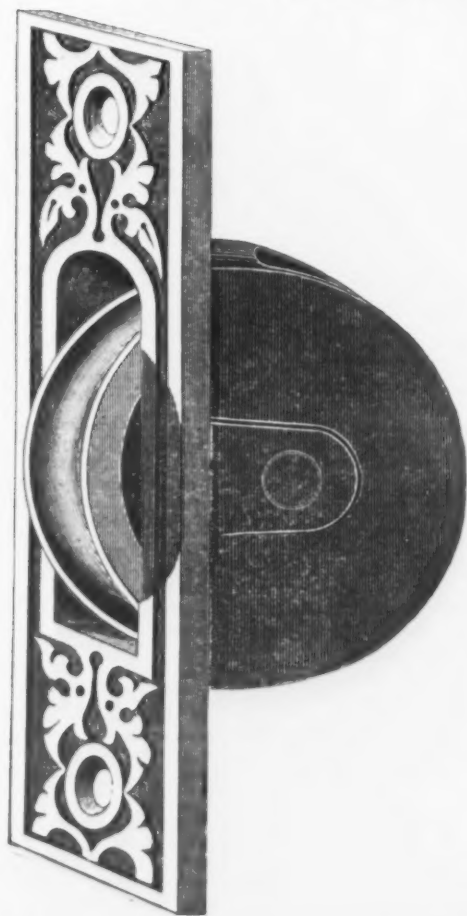
Mortise Knob Lock, Rabbed Bronze Front, No. x4230.



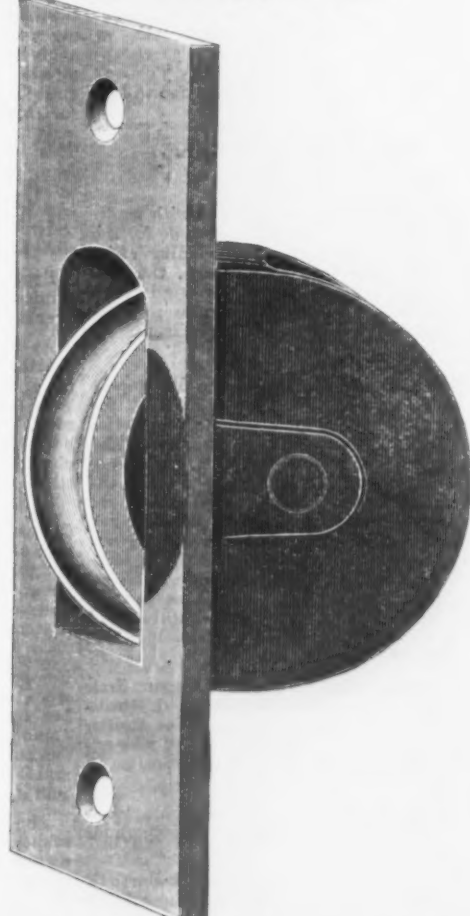
Iron Bronzed Butt, with Bronze Metal Tip, No. 46 3/4.



Porcelain Knob, with Bronze Metal Mountings, No. 225.



Axle Pulley, with Iron Bronzed Front, No. 60.



Axle Pulley, with Plain Iron Bronzed Front, No. 050.



### The Michigan Central Bridge at Niagara.

A correspondent writes as follows: The best point from which to obtain a general view of the progress of the whole work is from the footway of the older suspension bridge, midway of the span. I wish to dispense with figures as much as possible, in order to present a general view, but it is necessary to remember that we stand here about 230 feet above the water, and that this is about the height of the almost perpendicular bank. We also learn that the distance between the piers of the new bridge, from side to side, will be 464 feet, and these last figures necessarily represent about the width of the mad torrent of water that goes roaring down from its leap over the precipice two miles above. I say necessarily, because the piers rise nearly from the water's edge. The new bridge is to be about 10 rods above the other. Commencing our view from the standpoint selected, we see just in the rear of the top of the bank on either side a small army of workmen engaged with derricks lowering timbers and blocks of stone to the scaffolding below, where they are in turn swung off by another derrick on their descent of nearly 200 feet to the workmen at the piers below. Further back from the top of the cliff other gangs are at work excavating for foundations and preparing to lay the great masses of stone masonry that are to confine the ends of the cantilever, which will balance and support the whole structure. The quantities of dressed stone, timber and steel lying about the grounds give the spectator some conception of the size of the work.

Dropping the eye about 25 feet from the top of the bank, we see a huge scaffolding from 150 to 200 feet high, and reaching out from the bank fully 100 feet, or enough to overtop the piers, which stand, as already stated, almost at the water's edge. It makes one hold his breath to look from one side of the river to the other at those two huge scaffolds, and think that they were erected there by ordinary men, plain carpenters and joiners, who, for their day's wages, wrought those stages up to their present dizzy height, in constant peril of the death in the raging flood beneath that a single slip or false step would bring them. We think of it as we look; they probably never thought of the danger, but went right on in a business-like way and did their work. A dummy engine stands near the edge of each scaffolding and a derrick at the edge. More men—lots of them—are at work about these machines, and as the great timbers and blocks of stone swing out over the abyss and go down slowly and steadily, the eye is captured by the sight and follows the descent till they reach their destination at the foot of the scaffolding. Here more men are at work, swarming like ants about the piers. These piers are of stone—four of them on each side of the river—their bases resting on foundations which will endure as long as the everlasting hills. Viewed from our standpoint these piers look small, and it is only by comparing their height with that of the ants around them, which we know to be men, that we convince ourselves that they are of some size. We learn that they are, in fact, each 40 feet in height. From these the steel towers will rise to and above the top of the bank, and the shape and symmetry of the work will be rapidly disclosed. The general description which I have given of the work on the bridge as it appears to day relates to both sides of the river. While the work on the American side is said to be the more advanced, the only indication of it from this general view is that two of the stone piers on the Canada side are minus their capstans. Some accidents have occurred to laborers here; more will probably occur, as the work is prosecuted in continual risk of life and limb. But it goes steadily on. The contract calls for \$1000 forfeit for each day that its completion is delayed beyond Dec. 1, 1883, and the unprofessional spectator, observing with amazement what has been thus far accomplished in the teeth of tremendous difficulties and in defiance of the forbidding situation, is quite ready to believe that the bridge will be finished "on time."

### Wheelwright's Tool for Drilling and Countersinking Tires.

We present in the accompanying engraving an ingenious tool brought out by the Wiley & Russell Mfg. Company, of Greenfield, Mass. It is specially adapted for wheelwrights, being capable of drilling and countersinking tires in one operation, and is made of a superior quality of steel. The countersinking tool is pierced to hold the drill, which may be readily adjusted accord-



Tool for Drilling and Countersinking Tires in One Operation.

ing to the depth of hole wanted. The drill piercing the tire and felloe, and the countersinking tool following, the job is finished in a single operation, without the trouble of adjusting tools and work twice. The tool is now supplied in the following sizes:  $\frac{1}{8}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{3}{8}$ , and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , with round shanks  $\frac{1}{8}$  inch or  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch in diameter.

There is a formidable array of electrical interests combined to solve the problem of removing from the streets and buildings the unsightly poles and wires now covering the lower part of the city. Numerous complaints have led to the formation of an organization of 25 electrical companies, exclusive of the Western Union, who propose to remove the poles and wires and to replace them with an underground system. A committee has been formed for the promotion of the end sought, and circulars relating to the subject have already been issued to electricians in this country and abroad, with the object of concentrating inventive genius upon the problem. It is proposed to ascertain the most practicable plan, and to have compulsory legislation requiring all electrical companies to conform to that plan; and it is intended

to make the plan so obviously the best that not even the powerful influence of the Western Union Telegraph Company can prevent the enactment of such a law.

### LATEST LEGAL DECISIONS.

#### TENANTS IN COMMON—PARTITION OF REAL PROPERTY.

One of two tenants in common, as the land could not be divided, brought an action against his co-tenant to compel a sale of the land, and had a judgment to that effect. The defendant carried the case—Johnson vs. Olmstead—to the Supreme Court of Errors of Connecticut, where the judgment was affirmed. Judge Pardee, in the opinion, said: "No person can be compelled to remain the owner with another of real estate, not even if he become such by his own act; every owner is entitled to the fullest enjoyment of his property, and that can come only through an ownership free from dictation by others as to the manner in which it may be exercised. Therefore, the law afforded to every owner with another relief by way of partition, and this regardless alike of the difficulties attending separation and the consequences to his associate. Rights to the use of running water, rights to dig ores, have been declared subject to this law. But, inasmuch as it might sometimes happen that by partition the property would be practically sacrificed, the statute has opened a way of escape from such a result. It permits a court of equity to order a sale, when in its opinion a sale will better promote the interest of the owners. Therefore, since the passage of the statute there have been two modes of relief within the power of the court—partition and sale. Every owner with another is entitled to separate ownership by one of these; by partition first, and always if that is possible; if it is not, then by sale, every petitioner for a sale assuming the burden of proving a partition impossible, and if upon such petition the impossibility of partition is proven, the court is as much bound to order a sale as it would have been to order a partition upon a prayer for it, and upon proof that it could be conveniently and equitably made. If upon a petition for a sale it is proven both that partition is impossible and that a sale would result in a diminution of income, the petitioner is not for that reason to be shut up to continued joint ownership; he must have leave to go out of the possible door, notwithstanding that diminution; upon such petition the most that plaintiff or defendant can insist upon is that the undeniable right to severality in ownership shall be secured by the least injurious of the two specified modes."

#### SET-OFF—PARTNERSHIP AND PRIVATE DEBTS.

C brought an action against P. K. & Co. on the check of G, and the bank set up two defenses: 1. That the partnership of which G was a member was indebted to them in a sum more than the amount of his account, and that they had set off his credit against their debt. 2. That the balance to the credit of G was less than the amount of the check, and that C could not cover as assignee of G, unless the check passed to him the credit claim of G. The defendants succeeded below, and the plaintiff carried the case—Coates vs. Preston—to the Supreme Court of Illinois, where the judgment was affirmed. The Chief Justice, in the opinion, said: "1. Debts, to be the subject of set-off, must be mutual between the parties to the action. That is not the case here. The debt offered to be set off is the debt of the firm against the claim of one of the individual partners, and this cannot be done. 2. The bank was under no obligation to pay any sum on the check unless the drawer had sufficient money on deposit to his credit with which to pay the check in full. It is plain the present plaintiff could not recover for a moiety of the check. That would be a division of the claim which the law will not allow. A very different question would be presented if G himself was the plaintiff here. The plaintiff could only recover, if at all, on the check, and if the drawer did not have a sufficient sum on deposit in defendant's hands with which to make full payment, so as to take up and hold the check as a voucher, they were under no obligation to make a partial payment, and could rightfully refuse to pay the check, or any part of it, as they did."

#### ACCIDENT INSURANCE—INVOLUNTARY ACTION—UNCONSCIOUS CONDITION OF MIND.

In an action to recover the weekly indemnity upon an accident policy—Scheiderer vs. Travelers' Insurance Company—the complainant stated that "when it was quite dark, and while he was in a dazed and unconscious condition of mind, and not knowing or realizing what he was doing, he involuntarily arose from his seat and walked unconsciously to the platform of the car, and, without fault on his part, fell therefrom to the ground and was thereby injured." The company insisted that they were not liable for this casualty, as it was not accidental, but the result of the action of the plaintiff. The trial court sustained this position of the defendant, and the plaintiff appealed to the Supreme Court of Wisconsin, where the judgment was reversed. Judge Orton, in the opinion, said: "It is not necessary to wander away and get lost in 'that wilderness more dark than groves of fir on Huron's shore'—the wilderness of the mind—to ascertain the precise condition of the mind of the plaintiff, as stated in the complaint, when the accident occurred, and it is useless to speculate as to the remote causes of that condition—whether drunkenness, utter prostration, somnambulism, brain disease or derangement of the faculties—beyond, aside or in contradiction of the complaint. The allegations of the complaint show a cause of action against the company. What occurred happened, it is stated, while the plaintiff was unconscious, and that his action was involuntary. These are the strongest words which could be used to negative self-infliction, design or voluntary exposure, which are the only conditions material to the case which exempt the company from liability. In respect to the causes of this mental condition of the plaintiff, it must also be accepted as true that he went to sleep from weariness and the motion of the cars, and never awoke

to consciousness or volition until the injury had happened. It is evident that he was entirely irresponsible."

### Handling Freight in England.

Mr. Edgar Worthington, writing to the *Railroad Gazette*, devotes a long article to the subject of freight handling, and the methods employed in England. In this country we are, in a vast number of cases, far behind the age in machinery and appliances of all kinds for the purpose, and hence the subject is of the highest interest.

It is not very long since the stout oaken capstan on board ship was the only representative of its kind, when the Scotchman with his bagpipes sat in the middle encouraging the sailors with his musical drone to "heave in" at the capstan, and thus weigh the anchor. But now not only the sailor, but railway men and many others, including the man who moves his house along the street in some Western city, all know and make use of this mechanical device to haul great weights.

But it is with capstans in freight-yards and warehouses with which we have now more especially to deal. And not with those which are turned by hand, but those where the hand of man has only to make a couple of turns of rope round the iron capstan, and watch the iron muscles of the little laborer do the work.

There are two styles of capstans in common use in England—those driven from underground shafting, and those driven by separate engines, generally by hydraulic power. The former are connected by bevel gear to the main shafting, and are constantly running as long as the engine is at work. The head of the capstan is often made of two pieces, the upper part, which receives all the wear of the rope, being made of chilled iron and screwed on to the lower half, which is not worn by this friction, and is therefore more permanent. The shaft on which this head is keyed passes down through a square casting, which is firmly bolted to a stone or brick foundation by four stout bolts. A long bearing piece is fixed to this casting for the shaft to revolve in; and a bevel-wheel is keyed on the lower end of the shaft, which is geared into a smaller bevel-wheel on a horizontal counter-shaft, which is in its turn driven from the main shafting. In this manner as many as a dozen capstans may be driven from the same engine, each capstan, when worked alone, being able to exert the full power of that engine. These power capstans are, however, dropping out of use on account of the misuse of the great power possessed by them, which frequently results in a broken rope, or, still worse, a broken limb, and hydraulic capstans of various makes have taken their place.

Among the earliest of these, still much in use, was a capstan made by Sir William Armstrong. A little hydraulic engine of three oscillating cylinders placed side by side was firmly fixed to the ground below the capstan, and was made to drive the latter through a pair of reducing bevel-wheels. The cylinders were stout brass castings, and the water pressure acted only on one side of the piston or ram. The valve chests and valves were also of brass, and all the fixed joints in the pipes and machinery were made of gutta-percha. Another successful method was that of making the three cylinders work directly on to three cranks in the capstan spindle.

But the most generally adopted type is that resulting from an application of the Brotherhood three-cylinder engine to the capstan. In this compact combination a cast-iron pillar inside the capstan-head forms a long bearing for the capstan spindle. At the lower end of the latter, immediately below the bed-plate, is a single crank on which three cylinders work, ranged at angles of 120° with one another, these cylinders being of iron, cast in one piece, and bushed with phosphor-bronze. The rams are of brass or phosphor-bronze, having a long bearing in the cylinder, and each is packed with a cup leather, which is the universal packing for hydraulic cylinders, ingeniously arranged so that the pressure of water behind the ram opens the cup leather, and forms a tight joint with the cylinder. Unless these cup leathers are perfect in size and quality, the rough usage of a capstan, or the admission of sand with the water, will soon find out the defect, through which the water, at 750 pounds pressure per square inch, will soon be running to waste. These cup leathers are generally made of the best thick leather, and are pressed into the required shape between cast-iron dies. The three connecting-rods which work on the one crank above mentioned, and which are always subjected to compression, owing to the cylinders being single acting, are made of cast iron, and, as in the case of the Westinghouse engine, they can, for the same reason, be run at a very high speed.

The distribution of water to these cylinders is effected by one valve placed vertically below the center of the capstan and driven by means of a brass disk on the lower end of the crank. The valve is of brass, and is circular. It contains a pressure port opening on its under side into the valve chamber, where the water is admitted from the pipes, and an exhaust port conducting the water from the cylinders, each in turn, back through the center of the cylinder casting, whence it is conveyed in return pipes to the engine-house, or to waste, as the case may be. This distributing valve is  $5\frac{1}{2}$  inches in diameter, and the face upon which it revolves is of lignumvite, a wood which has been found by its self-lubricating qualities to withstand the great pressure better than any metal, especially where grit is liable to pass through with the water. The port holes in this lignumvite face are 1 inch in diameter, and are bushed with short pieces of brass tubes, which keep their edges perfect. It is a point of great importance in this valve that there should be no lap; that the pressure should be on the rams during the whole of their forward stroke, and that it should then be instantly cut off and the exhaust port quite as instantly opened. Many hydraulic engines are fitted with a small relief valve in the water passages, through which any confined water may find its way back to the valve-chest, if, from any cause, the valve should not open soon enough. But in these Brotherhood capstans there is no

such relief valve, the main valve itself being forced off its seat in case of over-pressure in the cylinders. Some of these capstans, after being in use for a considerable time, gave signs of being out of order by stopping suddenly. This behavior was for some time unexplained, until it was found to be owing to the gear which drives the valve getting a little worn, and thus not opening the exhaust exactly at the end of the stroke. This little defect was easily remedied, but it shows how necessary it is to provide a prompt and reliable outlet to water, which is so inelastic that, if confined, it will either stop the machine or have a disastrous effect at the weakest part of the structure.

The whole of this self-contained capstan, including the hydraulic engine, which we are considering, is made complete in the shops, and is then ready to be dropped on to a stone or brick foundation, which is provided with a manhole to facilitate the examination of joints or the renewing of the cup leathers. The starting and stopping of the capstan is effected by an ordinary spindle valve with a conical seat, which is opened by the foot through treads placed on both sides of the capstan, and which is closed by weights. All the necessary levers connecting these two treads with the valve, being four in number, are attached to the under side of the foundation plate. Instead of providing access to the engine by means of a manhole, some of these foundation planks are arranged on a hinge so that the whole capstan can be tilted up above the ground, thus enabling repairs to be more easily effected than in the necessarily confined space of a manhole. This is no doubt a great convenience, and shows the advantage of paying special attention to the get-at-ability of parts of machinery which, like the capstans, are kept so much warmer and safer when they are well confined underneath the ground.

There are many other little points of interest in the capstan above described which it would be useless to attempt to describe further without the aid of drawings to illustrate the details. Many of these details appear absurdly strong to an eye accustomed to steam machinery only, but water at 750 pounds per square inch pressure cannot be kept within bounds by the same means as steam at 60 pounds. When well constructed, they are an immense convenience in a freight yard, being a great and safe power in a small space. Each capstan can pull 10 loaded cars, or 150 tons, and no more, its power depending entirely on the pressure of water supplied. Hence lighter ropes can be employed than those which were necessary when locomotives or other powerful machinery did the work, and thus the labor of carrying ropes about the yard is very much reduced.

The hydraulic cranes with which warehouses are stocked are generally of a light construction; especially if a secure fastening can be found overhead, in the roof or wall, where a shoe forming a pivot for the pillar can be secured, in which case the crane can be more conveniently and lightly constructed, and at the same time more clearance can be provided underneath the job. In most cases the cylinder forms part of the pillar of the crane, the water being conveyed to and from it through a pipe in the center of the shoe. This is, however, a very exposed position for the cylinder, and in the case of cranes which stand in the open air, it is either cased in with wrought-iron plates or placed entirely underground. At the Holyhead docks a very complete system of hydraulic machinery was put down five years ago. There the warehouse cranes stand in the openings of a stone wall and have thus a secure fastening for the top and bottom of the pillar. The job reaches out through this opening over the vessel, and slews from that position across a platform containing a weighing machine, over to the railroad cars on the other side of the platform. The cranes are of wrought iron, and the cylinders are placed underneath the platform at such an angle as to enable the ram to sink back into the cylinder by its own weight when the crane is empty and lowering. These cylinders are of double power, which is effected in the following manner: The ram of the main lifting cylinder is itself a cylinder containing a smaller ram. This smaller cylinder is the one generally used, the larger ram being kept in its place by a catch, which can be released when the larger power is required for a heavier lift. The slewing cylinders are placed side by side, their rams being connected by a chain which passes round the base of the pillar, and their valves are closed automatically when the job has reached the limit of its swing. The slewing cylinders are among the most valuable features in hydraulic cranes, for they place the job completely under the control of the operator, thus enabling him to turn the crane round while in the act of lifting, and to deposit its burden at any given point in the circle of its range with the least possible delay.

There are different ways of varying the power of hydraulic cranes, one being that of varying the ratio of the pulleys in the lifting ram, and another being an ingenious device invented by Mr. Mills, by which the power of the two slewing cylinders can be united to that of the lifting cylinder by means of a simple chain connection and an increased stroke of the rams. But none of these complications are regarded with very general favor, because it is found that simplicity in working a crane is of more value than a little saving of water. In all hydraulic machinery it is usual to provide an air cock at the highest point to which the water rises, in order to allow the air to escape on admitting water for the first time. And, as before mentioned, it is important to burn gas-jets near the cylinders or other exposed parts during cold weather. With these precautions it is found that hydraulic machinery is perfectly reliable, and, as I have already endeavored to illustrate, it is in very general use throughout the warehouses, docks and freight-yards of England.

The use of gas as a motive power in large warehouses has been successfully tried in several parts of England, and its adaptability to places where gas is cheap deserves attention. The engines, of which the Otto silent gas engine is the most prominent example, are placed on the upper floors of warehouses, or wherever they are nearest their work,

and the chief advantage over the steam engine lies in the absence of a boiler, or, indeed, of any visible fuel, and also in the little attention consequently required. Their advantage over the hydraulic system consists mainly in their being unaffected by the coldest weather and in their economy of power, of which the hydraulic system is necessarily so wasteful. As to the all-important question of economy, however, everything depends on the price of gas, which, it may be mentioned, is as low as 75 cents per 1000 feet in some of the English cities.

A word about the lighter elevators which are used so largely in the hotels and large buildings of America for passengers and light freight may not be out of place here. The accidents which have from time to time happened to such elevators have made the British public very much afraid of them, especially of those worked by rope gear. A little more confidence seems to be placed in those actuated directly by a hydraulic cylinder sunk in the ground, which gives a more visible and direct support to the cage than where the latter is suspended by ropes only. But the larger amount of friction and the slow movement of such elevators take away their real value for passenger purposes, and if such were placed in the Mills Building, or other large office buildings in New York, in place of the rapidly-moving elevators which are at work there now, I fear that most of those who now make frequent use of them would walk upstairs. These direct-acting elevators have been made up to a great height, the ram of one of them being  $4\frac{1}{4}$  inches in diameter, and having a stroke of 70 feet. In this case, however, the weight of the cage was balanced so as to take as much dead weight as possible off so slender a ram. The water pressure used in such elevators varies from 30 pounds to 800 pounds per square inch. But passenger elevators are not used in England to anything like the extent they are in America. There seems again to be a general mistrust of all the various forms of safety apparatus, which have so often failed to act when most needed, so that the public in general prefer the exertion of walking up many flights of stairs to the slight risk of trusting themselves in the elevator, and it appears that the British public will remain of that opinion until something simpler and safer be introduced.

I have found it necessary to make frequent reference to the lorries or carts which do all the work of carrying freight through the streets. These are usually flat, and substantially built, and have no sides or ends beyond the few inches of sill to keep the load from slipping off. They are mounted on four strong wheels, which have often a tread of 6 inches in width, and weigh altogether from 15 to 36 cwt., as the load they are constructed to carry varies from 3 to 14 tons. Similar wagons, with sides and ends, are in use on rougher roads in the country, which weigh as much as 23 cwt., and which will carry 3 tons of coal. The lighter freight traffic of the streets is carried in two-wheel carts usually made without springs, which are often loaded with as much as 30 cwt. of coal. The horses which draw these carts and lorries are usually of a very heavy build, and often weigh as much as 16 cwt. each. When a horse weighs more than 19 cwt. he is considered a very fine animal. It will thus be noticed that in the streets, as in the warehouses, and on the railroads, the methods of handling freight in England differ widely from those in general use in the United States. The difference lies chiefly in the substantial nature of the fixed plant in the older country, which is due largely to the greater abundance of capital there.

My main object in writing these letters has been to indicate some of the methods by which large quantities of freight are handled in England, and more especially the aid which hydraulic power has afforded in the operations of transferring it between ship and lorry and railroad car as rapidly and at the same time as cheaply as possible. Whether this power can be applied in the United States to the same extent as it is in England is a matter for experiment to decide. But considering the severe winters which the machinery has already safely endured, I see no insuperable difficulty in the way of its more general adoption, even in the Northern and Eastern States of America.

At a lecture lately delivered at the Civil Service Institution in London, Colonel Fossbery created a sensation by suddenly drawing from its place of hiding, under the table, a wonderful new gun, which he had just brought from Liège. He called it a "baby electric gun." It looked like a pretty carbine, but it had no mechanism and could not possibly go off until connected up to the source of electric force. This done, it could be fired with amazing rapidity, 104 rounds having a few days before been fired from it by its inventor, M. Pieper, of Liège, in two minutes. Colonel Fossbery fired two rounds with infinitesimal powder charges. He had prepared himself by secreting under his vest a small circuit of wire and putting on a bandole, supporting what looked like a two-ounce vial, but was, in fact, an electric accumulator, with sufficient stored-up energy to discharge 2000 rounds. The cartridges were innocent looking mites, and contained no detonating substances—nothing, in fact, but simple powder and a wad.

The Consul-General of the United States at Rome, under date of July 31, has furnished the Department of State with an account of a series of contests between combined reaping and binding machines, manufactured in several countries, in which those of the United States were successful. The tests were severe, the ground being in many places marshy and stony. The result clearly showed the superiority of the American machines. There were only two prizes offered for combined reapers and binders, and both of these were won by American machines. The first of these, consisting of \$200, a gold medal, a diploma and the purchase of two machines, was awarded to the McCormick machine. The second, \$100, a silver medal and diploma, was awarded the Messrs. Warder, Bushnell & Geisner. The Consul-General calls attention to the benefits resulting from American representation at such exhibitions, and to the promising field in Italy for the introduction of agricultural implements of American manufacture.



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Single Bolt Cutters, cutting from  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. to 1 in.  
Single Bolt Cutters, cutting from  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in.

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3 Single Bolt Cutters, cutting from  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to 2 in.  
4 Single Bolt Cutters, cutting from  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in.  
5 Single Bolt Cutter, cutting from 1 in. to  $3\frac{1}{2}$  in.  
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Specialist in All Kinds of  
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Reading, Pa.

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Stock of Hardware, Stoves and Tinware, in one of the best towns in Southern Minnesota; population about 7000, and growing rapidly. Nice clean stock; will inventory about \$6000; satisfac-

W. F. RUMSEY,  
Albert Lea, Minn.

## For Sale.

Foundry situated at 2028 N. 10th St., Philadelphia, in good running order. 147 feet front on 10th St. and 120 feet back on Alter St. Room for fifteen boulders. Plenty of work, good to suit and good

WM. FLESH, 20.8 N. 10th St.,  
Philadelphia, Pa.  
Reason for selling out, retiring from business.

**For Sale.**  
 ne Granu'ator, with attachments,  
 ne large mixer, with attachments,  
 ne No. 5 Vacuum Pump.  
 Baker.

The above is a portion of the Machinery formerly used at Baltimore Steam Sugar Refinery, Baltimore, Md. For information apply to  
GEO. B. GRAHAM,

P. O. Box 689, Baltimore, Md.

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**For Sale.**

NEW HORIZONTAL STATIONARY ENGINES.

10 Horse Power..... \$ 275.00

|                                 |        |
|---------------------------------|--------|
| One 15 Horse-Power.....         | 325.00 |
| Three 20 Horse-Power, each..... | 360.00 |
| One 25 Horse-Power.....         | 460.00 |
| Two 30 Horse-Power, each.....   | 537.00 |
| Two 35 Horse Power, each.....   | 611.20 |

|                     |          |
|---------------------|----------|
| 40 Horse-Power..... | \$65.60  |
| 60 Horse-Power..... | \$131.20 |
| 70 Horse-Power..... | \$134.80 |

For further particulars, address  
**MERWIN MCKAIG,**  
 Engine Builder,  
 Cumtcrly nd, Md.

**FOR SALE.**  
Nos. 1 and 6 Sturtevant Blowers; No. 2 do.  
Exhaust; Vertical Engines, 2 and 12 H. P.; Roper

At Air do. 7½ and 3 H. P.; Otto (gas do. 1 H. P.;  
New Pumping do. 6-in.; Baxter do. 4, 6 and 10  
P.; Fliner, 30 x 16 x 4 (tine), \$300.; do., 30 x  
5 (Chain), \$300.; Envisie Lathe 30 x 14, \$300.;  
ane, 1; tons; 84-in Cupola. Purchases carefully  
ade for parties at low rates.  
C. R. BIGELOW, M. E.

18 New Church St., New York City.

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**Mixed Screws in Bulk.**

packed in cases of 150 to 200 lbs. each. For  
price, address  
**GEO. E. WEAVER,**











| Quan.                             | Val.    | Quan.                      | Val.   |
|-----------------------------------|---------|----------------------------|--------|
| Pilm., gals., 62,000              | \$5,760 | Fountain, 1                | \$25   |
| Hdw., cs., 7                      | 185     | Saws, cs., 2               | 455    |
| Clocks, pkgs., 95                 | 1,000   | Iron safe, 1               | 50     |
| Rides, cs., 3                     | 58      | Cutlery, cs., 11           | 617    |
| Sew. ma., cs., 25                 | 381     | Sew. mach., cs., 187       | 4,520  |
| <b>Operto.</b>                    |         |                            |        |
| Pilm., gals., 148,000             | 11,000  | Mach'y, pkgs., 58          | 4,544  |
| Mf. iron, pkgs., 48               | 431     | Ag. imp. pkgs., 12         | 212    |
| <b>Naples.</b>                    |         |                            |        |
| Ag. imp. pkgs., 3                 | 38      | Clocks, cs., 11            | 213    |
| <b>Santo Domingo.</b>             |         |                            |        |
| Pilm., gals., 5000                | 557     | Nails, kegs., 84           | 259    |
| Mf. iron, pkgs., 259              | 2,011   | Pumps, pkgs., 5            | 61     |
| Sew. ma., cs., 2                  | 107     | Guns, case, 1              | 75     |
| Cartridges, cs., 80               | 1,520   | <b>Myrina.</b>             |        |
| Scale, 1                          | 157     | Pilm., gals., 362,690      | 31,471 |
| Fish pls., bbls., 250             | 100     | <b>Constantinople.</b>     |        |
| Pumps, pkgs., 3                   | 38      | Pilm., gals., 166,350      | 14,567 |
| Iron, pkgs., 53                   | 18      | <b>Argentine Republic.</b> |        |
| Ag. imp. pkgs., 61                | 61      | Sew. ma., cs., 317         | 5,889  |
| Hdw., pkgs., 22                   | 484     | Mf. iron, pkgs., 275       | 2,320  |
| Nails, pkgs., 8                   | 33      | Shoe nails, bxs., 80       | 690    |
| Nails, kegs., 26                  | 83      | Hdw., pkgs., 206           | 5,560  |
| Steel rails, 115                  | 4,554   | Wash. ma., cs., 12         | 130    |
| Spikes, kegs., 81                 | 161     | Revolver, cs., 24          | 755    |
| W. mail, 1                        | 308     | Iron safe, 1               | 50     |
| <b>Alexandria.</b>                |         |                            |        |
| Pilm., gals., 136,000             | 12,300  | Mach'y, pkgs., 25          | 1,914  |
| <b>United States of Columbia.</b> |         |                            |        |
| Mf. iron, pkgs., 155              | 1,674   | Ag. imp. pkgs., 163        | 4,400  |
| Pilm., gals., 3,080               | 537     | Clock, pkgs., 2            | 240    |
| Cartridges, cs., 37               | 4,925   | Pumps, pkgs., 196          | 470    |
| Cartridges, cs., 30               | 333     | <b>Central America.</b>    |        |
| Iron, pkgs., 132                  | 1,302   | Mach'y, pkgs., 13          | 226    |
|                                   |         | Sew. ma., cs., 1           | 15     |
|                                   |         | Hdw., pkgs., 8             | 42     |
|                                   |         | <b>Sandwich Islands.</b>   |        |
|                                   |         | Locks, 4                   | 100    |
|                                   |         | Mach'y, pkgs., 5           | 275    |

## IMPORTS

Of Hardware, Iron, Steel and Metals into the Port of New York, for the Week ending Sept. 5, 1883.

| Hardware.                           | Dickerson, Van Duzen & Co. |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Baldwin Bros. & Co.                 | Sheets, bbls., 601         |
| Blackburn & Co.                     | Elliot, Sons & Co.         |
| Baker, Hermann & Co.                | Ore, kg., 350,000          |
| Cutlery and guns, pkgs., 63         | Lalanc & Grosjean          |
| Borgfeldt Geo. & Co.                | Mfg. Co.                   |
| Ironware, cs., 18                   | Sheets, bbls., 275         |
| Bureau of Ordnance, Gun barrels, 19 | Ledgerwood W. V.           |
| Boilers, 13                         | Boilers, 13                |
| Projects, 15                        | Lundberg Gust.             |
| Burdett & Fond.                     | Bars, 958                  |
| M. ch'y, case, 1                    | Mason J. W. & Co.          |
| Curley Bros.                        | Wire rope, coils, 11       |
| Mdse., cs., 3                       | McComb J. J.               |
| Des Marets & Co.                    | Cotton ties, bbls., 220    |
| Mach'y pipes, 1                     | McDonald & Hernley,        |
| Dowling, Sheldon & Co.              | Iron tubes, 2              |
| Arms, cs., 14                       | Meyer G. A. & E.           |
| Drexel, Morgan & Co.                | Oxide, bbls., 28           |
| Arms, cs., 33                       | Morris L. W.               |
| Duden & Co.                         | Ironwork, case, 1          |
| Mach'y, case, 1                     | Naylor & Co.               |
| Dunham, Buckley & Co.               | Spiegel, cks., 250         |
| Packages, 19                        | Pim, Forwood & Co.         |
| Field Alfred & Co.                  | Pipes, pkgs., and          |
| Arms, cs., 14                       | Pipes, pkgs., and          |
| Mdse., cs., 49                      | Pipes, pkgs., and          |
| Folsom H. & D.                      | Stetson Geo. W.            |
| Arms, cs., 9                        | Pig tons, 200              |
| Mdse., cs., 12                      | Stevenson, Herson &        |
| Foulke & Co.                        | Pig tons, 14               |
| Saws, case, 1                       | Williamson Jas. & Co.      |
| Frank Henry,                        | Pig tons, 600              |
| Mach'y, pkgs., 4                    | Wolmann & Mickert,         |
| Godfrey C. H.                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Arms, cs., 4                        | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Green Western Disp. Co.             | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Arms, cs., 11                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Greenmont Spinning Co.              | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Mdse., cs., 5                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Graf Cutlery Co.                    | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cutlery, cs., 7                     | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Hildick A. H.                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Anvils, 101                         | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Vices, 18                           | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cask, 1                             | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Johns H. W. Mfg. Co.                | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Nails, kegs., 100                   | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Maitly, Curly & Co.                 | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Arms, case, 1                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Markt & Co.                         | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cases, 15                           | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Merch. D. P. Co.                    | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Ironware, cs., 3                    | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Ironware, cs., 3                    | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Ironware, cs., 3                    | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Arms, cs., 22                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cases, 6                            | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Mach'y, cs., 11                     | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Middleton & Co.                     | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Box Iron, 1                         | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Moore's Sons J. P.                  | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cases, 7                            | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Morreil & Co.                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cases, 2                            | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Penny Cap.                          | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cases, 15                           | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Read, Holiday & Sons,               | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Mach'y, cs., 7                      | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Schoverling, Daly &                 | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Valies,                             | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Arms, cs., 27                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Seizas & Pardo,                     | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Mach'y, pcs., 2                     | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Squires, H. C.                      | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Mdse., cs., 2                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Stevens, Voinis & Co.               | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cases, 3                            | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Stevenson J. E.                     | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Mach'y, case, 1                     | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Strassburger Oscar &                | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cases, 76                           | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Tryon E. K.                         | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Guns, cs., 14                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| The Clark Mill End Cot-             | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| ton Co.                             | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Mach'y, pkgs., 36                   | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Vom Clegg & Co.                     | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Mdse., case, 1                      | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Wieburch, Huger & Co.               | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Hdw. and cutlery,                   | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| pkgs., 60                           | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Anvils, 330                         | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Ward A-line,                        | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Mdse., cs., 6                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Order,                              | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Naples, kegs., 9                    | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Rivets, cs., 49                     | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Cases, 4                            | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Files, cs., 9                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| <b>Iron.</b>                        |                            |
| Baring Bros. & Co.                  | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Wire rods, coils,                   | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| 104                                 | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Riv & rods, coils, 506              | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Coddington T. B. & Co.              | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Sheets, bbls., 103                  | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Sheets, bbls., 506                  | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Crocker Bros.                       | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |
| Pig, tons, 500                      | Wire rods, bbls., 3        |

## COAL.

Now that the September circulars are out in the Anthracite Coal trade, announcing an advance of from 10 to 25¢ per ton on nearly all sizes, little remains to be said. The Lehigh and Schuylkill Coal Exchanges alone are recalcitrant. For special Coals the advanced prices may have been realized in some instances, but, as a rule, sales are not up even to the August circulars. For outside Coals the current prices obtained are far behind, and there are not a few who ridicule the idea of an attempted advance as matters stand. Trade is spoken of as in good shape generally, with an improved demand for the domestic sizes. In Hard Coals there has been some delay at shipping points. The Western Association have advanced the prices of Anthracite 10¢ per ton on Egg, and 15¢ on Stove and Chestnut, at all points, either by rail or vessel. The Pottsville

Miner's Journal says: "The trade continues in a very animated condition. All the Coal mined is placed as rapidly as it can be transported, and buyers are filling orders for future delivery in considerable quantity. The outlook is very favorable for the largest and best business this year of any since the beginning of Anthracite mining." The Bituminous trade of late is a shade better, and Cumberland is quoted about \$2.25. The total amount of Anthracite Coal sent to market for the week ending August 25 was 720,042 tons, compared with 621,508 tons in the corresponding week last year, an increase of 98,534 tons. The total amount of Anthracite mined thus far in the year 1883 is 19,024,098 tons, compared with 17,639,175 tons for the same period last year, an increase of 1,384,923 tons.

## OLD METALS, PAPER STOCK, &amp;c.

The purchasing prices offered by dealers are as follows:

|                      |         |
|----------------------|---------|
| Copper, heavy        | 10.10 @ |
| light                | 10.00 @ |
| Copper bottoms       | 10.00 @ |
| Yellow Metal         | 10.00 @ |
| Brass, heavy         | 10.00 @ |
| light                | 10.00 @ |
| Composition, heavy   | 10.00 @ |
| Lead, heavy          | 10.00 @ |
| Tin Lead             | 10.00 @ |
| Zinc                 | 10.00 @ |
| Pewter, No. 1        | 10.00 @ |
| No. 2                | 10.00 @ |
| Wrought Iron, 20 lb. | 10.00 @ |
| Light                | 10.00 @ |
| Stove Plate          | 10.00 @ |
| Machinery            | 10.00 @ |
| Grate Bars           | 10.00 @ |
| Stereotype Plates    | 10.00 @ |
| Electrotype          | 10.00 @ |
| Small Type           | 10.00 @ |

The prices current (prices paid by local dealers) for Rags, &c., are as follows:

|                        |         |
|------------------------|---------|
| Canvas, Linen          | 10.00 @ |
| White Cotton, New      | 10.00 @ |
| No. 1                  | 10.00 @ |
| No. 2                  | 10.00 @ |
| White, No. 1           | 10.00 @ |
| No. 2                  | 10.00 @ |
| Secord                 | 10.00 @ |
| Soft Woollens          | 10.00 @ |
| Mixed Rags             | 10.00 @ |
| Gunny Bagging          | 10.00 @ |
| June Butts             | 10.00 @ |
| Kentucky Bagging       | 10.00 @ |
| Book Stock             | 10.00 @ |
| Newspapers             | 10.00 @ |
| Waste Paper and Scraps | 10.00 @ |
| Kentucky Bale Rope     | 10.00 @ |

## FOREIGN TRADE MOVEMENTS.

Included in the imports for the week ending September 1 were leading articles of merchandise valued as follows:

|                    | Pkgs.  | Value.  |
|--------------------|--------|---------|
| Antimony           | 50     | 2,712   |
| Anvils             | 665    | 2,507   |
| Brass goods        | 25     | 2,507   |
| Bronzes            | 41     | 2,507   |
| Chains and anchors | 31     | 2,147   |
| Clocks             | 63     | 6,281   |
| Copper             | 1      | 1,000   |
| Cutlery            | 348    | 37,151  |
| Gas fixtures       | 1      | 608     |
| Guns               | 68     | 10,012  |
| Hardware           | 3      | 115     |
| Iron, pig, tons    | 5,372  | 9,909   |
| Iron, sheet, tons  | 91     | 9,000   |
| Iron ore, tons     | 861    | 1,884   |
| Iron cotton ties   | 2,200  | 1,662   |
| Iron, other, tons  | 2,136  | 8,208   |
| Machinery          | 91     | 9,010   |
| Metal goods        | 233    | 6,840   |
| Needles            | 14     | 6,840   |
| Nickel             | 4      | 3,751   |
| Old Metal          | 1      | 994     |
| Paints             | 63     | 2,183   |
| Saddlery           | 10     | 1,292   |
| Steel              | 8,642  | 29,713  |
| Spelter            | 10,344 | 4,335   |
| Silver ore         | 4      | 50      |
| Tin, bxs., 14,933  | 18,221 | 80,248  |
| Tin, slabs, 14,933 | 18,221 | 258,268 |
| Wire               | 364    | 3,570   |
| Zinc oxide         | 350    | 3,840   |

The importation of cutlery and hardware compares with previous dates as follows:

|                   | For the 35 weeks | Same week, of 1883, time 1882. |
|-------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|
| Cutlery, pkgs.    | 348              | 5,470                          |
| Hardware, pkgs.   | 3                | 897                            |
| Iron, R. L., bars | 10,642           | 83,247                         |
| Lead, pkgs.       | 6,224            | 20,792                         |
| Steel, pkgs.      | 8,642            | 2,811,008                      |
| Tin, bxs.         | 18,221           | 1,554,674                      |
| Tin slabs, b.     | 18,221           | 15,063,873                     |

## PHILADELPHIA.

Office of The Iron Age, 230 South Fourth St., Philadelphia, Sept. 4, 1883.

**Pig Iron.**—The market has shown but little change during the week, but there seems to be a better feeling, and prices are held with a fair degree of firmness. There is not much disposition to place orders in advance of requirements, but consumption seems to absorb the output from week to week, so that there are no indications that stocks are increasing. On the contrary, the offerings are somewhat limited, but, in the meantime, quite sufficient to prevent any change in quotations. It is difficult to say what the outcome will be, but, for the time being, there is more confidence in values, and very few seem to expect lower prices. The past week has developed a better feeling throughout the entire trade, and while it is difficult to point to any department showing a special increase of business, the tone of the market is undoubtedly better than it has been for some weeks past. In fact, the conviction is becoming general that business is in a healthy condition, and that the shrinkage of the past six months is about exhausted. The decrease in consumption has probably been fully discounted, and although the volume of business may for a while be 8 or 10 per cent. below the extraordinary years of 1880, 1881 and 1882, it is no reason why prices should be forced below the cost of production. Then, again, as regards Pig Iron, the output has already been so largely reduced that the supply may after a while prove inadequate for the current requirements of the trade. It is believed that every furnace in the country that can make Iron at to-day's prices is already in operation, so that if the supply should prove to be insufficient, nothing but a higher range of prices is likely to increase it. In the meantime, buyers and sellers alike are groping their way along until the position is more clearly defined, the tendency, as we have already shown, being to take a more hopeful view of affairs. Sales have been chiefly in small lots, deliveries on former contracts absorbing the major portion of the output. No. 1 Foundry has sold at prices varying from \$22 to \$23.25, delivered, according to quantity, brand, &c., market closing very steady. No. 2 Foundry is comparatively dull, but at \$19.50 @ \$21, delivered, there is a fair demand, and apparently some little decrease in the supply, which for a while was unusually heavy. Mill

Irons about hold their own, but have not sold as freely as the other grades. Consumers have hard work to find a market for their products at remunerative prices; hence the necessity for cheaper material. Sellers are very much in the same position, however, and are equally unwilling to make concessions, so that the market has rather an unsatisfactory appearance, although it cannot be called lower. About \$17.50 @ \$18 at furnace seems to be the ruling price for standard grades, up to \$19 for one or two choice brands. Low-grade Irons have been in active demand, and at \$16 @ \$16.50 it is probable that a good many thousand tons would be taken, but the market has been pretty well cleared of mottled and low-priced Gray Irons.

**Foreign Iron.**—Bessemer is neglected, and there appears to be no attempt to do business by either buyers or sellers. Spiegeleisen is in demand by large consumers, but prices named are very low. A lot of 1000 tons, 20%, was sold for shipment to New York, at little, if anything, over \$30.50. Buyers offer \$30 for large lots.

**Muck Bars.**—Market steady and fairly active, with sales chiefly on the basis of \$34 at mill, although higher prices are asked by some holders.

**Blooms.**—Quiet and unchanged; sales in small lots at former quotations as follows: Charcoal Blooms, \$57 @ \$58; Run-out Anthracite, \$47.50 @ \$49; Scrap Blooms, \$42 @ \$44; Northern Ore Blooms, \$39.50 @ \$41.50.

**Bar Iron.**—The market is in much the same condition as noticed in recent reports. The mills seem to be pretty well employed, but the orders are for small lots, and of a class that cannot be handled with much profit to manufacturers. Prices are maintained at from 2.15¢ to 2.25¢ for such lots as are called for, but it would be impossible to secure large orders at these figures. It may be stated, however, that there is very little inquiry for large lots; neither are manufacturers crowding the market, but are satisfied with such business as comes along at current rates. It is difficult to say what the outcome will be for the fall trade, although the chances seem to be in favor of a steady market at about to-day's prices. Capacity for production is too large to admit of much advance in prices, and quotations are already too near cost of production to permit much decline. There is more inquiry for Skelp Iron, and several hundred tons are likely to be taken at about 2.15¢, delivered.

**Plate and Tank Iron.**—The demand for Plate Iron continues satisfactory, and prices are steady at last week's quotations. No new orders of importance have been entered during the week, leading consumers taking deliveries on contracts made some time ago. A 400-ton lot of Common Plate was taken by the Cambria Iron Company, price said to be 2.35¢, delivered at Johnstown, Pa. Boat and Bridge Plate are held at 2.4¢ @ 2.5, but the mills are so full of work that they are not anxious for business, unless for deliveries after next month. Last week's quotations may be repeated, as follows: Tank Iron, 2.5¢; Boat Plate, 2.35¢ @ 2.4¢; Shell, 3¢ @ 3.25¢; Flange, 4¢ @ 4.25¢, and Fire-Box, 5¢ @ 5.5¢.

**Structural Iron.**—The general position is unchanged; new business somewhat slow, but deliveries on old contracts called for with a good deal of urgency. The mills are full of work for the next two months, besides which there is a good deal of business likely to be placed before the close of the year, so that, on the whole, the outlook is not discouraging. Prices are as follows: Angles, 2.3¢ @ 2.4¢; Tees, 2.8¢ @ 3¢; Beams and Channels, 3.5¢.

**Sheet Iron.**—There has been an active demand for the high numbers, and manufacturers have all they can do to fill their orders promptly. Plates are comparatively dull, and prices a trifle easier. For small orders quotations are about as follows:

|   |        |
|---|--------|
| Common Sheets, No. 28                   | 4 1/2¢ |
| Common Sheets, Nos. 26 and 27           | 4 1/2¢ |
| Common Sheets, Nos. 24 to 25            | 4 1/2¢ |
| Best Refined, 1/2 advance on the above. |        |
| Best Bloom Sheets, Nos. 26 to 28        | 6 1/2¢ |
| Best Bloom Sheets, Nos. 22 to 25        | 6 1/2¢ |
| Best Bloom Sheets, Nos. 16 to 21        | 6 1/2¢ |
| Common Red Plates, 3/16 to 1/2          | 2 1/2¢ |
| Best Bloom, Galvanized, discount        | 40%    |
| Second quality, discount                | 50%    |

**Wrought-Iron Pipe.**—The demand is fair, but the tone of the market is weak and irregular. Competition is very sharp, and the market is strongly in buyers' favor; consequently, it is somewhat difficult to quote with any degree of exactness. We continue last week's quotations, viz.: 60¢ off list price on Boiler Tubes, and 70 and 5¢ off on Gas and Steam Pipe.

**Steel Rails.**—Business is still confined to early deliveries, buyers being unwilling to place orders at the figures generally asked. Direct orders for large lots are difficult to obtain at any price, although it is understood that \$36 @ \$36.50 would be paid for lots of 5000 to 10,000 tons each. Manufacturers quote \$37.50 @ \$38 for winter deliveries, and would probably meet good buyers half way, providing it would likely lead to business, but for the present both sides seem to be waiting developments. Sales for delivery during October and November are being made at \$38 @ \$38.50. Market quiet and steady.

**Old Rails.**—Buyers are in the market for Old T-Rails at about \$23 @ \$23.50, but there are no spot lots, so that quotations are entirely nominal. Lots for shipment are offered at \$23.50 @ \$24, but these figures are considered too high.

**Old Car Wheels.**—Sales, 400 tons Baltimore at \$17.

**Scrap Iron.**—There is a slightly improved demand, and while prices are not higher, holders manifest more confidence in values. Cargo lots of No. 1 command \$23 @ \$23.50, and selected lots from yard \$24.50 @ \$25, with sales of several good-sized lots at outside figures.

**Nails.**—Stocks continue comparatively light, although the demand is not quite as urgent as it was a few weeks ago. The market, however, may be reported steady and firm at \$3 per keg in an ordinary way, with slight concessions on large lots.

## PITTSBURGH.

Office of The Iron Age, 77 Fourth Avenue, Pittsburgh, Pa., Sept. 4, 1883.

While there has been no perceptible change in the general position of the Iron trade during the past week, a better and more cheerful feeling obtains, and the indications now are that there will be an improvement within the next week or two, as the time for the fall trade is near at hand. The reports from the West and South, as a rule, are favorable; in some sections the crops are light, but generally there will be an average yield, and our manufacturers look for a good demand for manufactured goods from now until the close of the year. Stocks of nearly all descriptions of manufactured goods in the hands of jobbers and large consumers are reported as being comparatively light. There is nothing in the outlook to warrant any very marked advance; hence people are ordering goods simply as they need them. There is every reason to believe that for Iron, Steel, Nails, &c., prices have reached the lowest point. Ordinary Merchant Iron is now being sold at about the cost of production, the raw article is no better, and, as the cost of production is claimed to be as low as it can go, it is easy to see that the prices of the products cannot be pushed much below where they are.

There have been no financial complications here for some time, and those that have occurred have been placed in such a condition that it is hoped that they will be able, with the time granted, to pay their creditors in full. Mr. Staunton, of New York, who was appointed receiver of the Manchester Furnace Company, states that it is the intention to run the furnaces until the supply of Ore contracted for has been absorbed, when the product will be sold and a general wind-up effected.

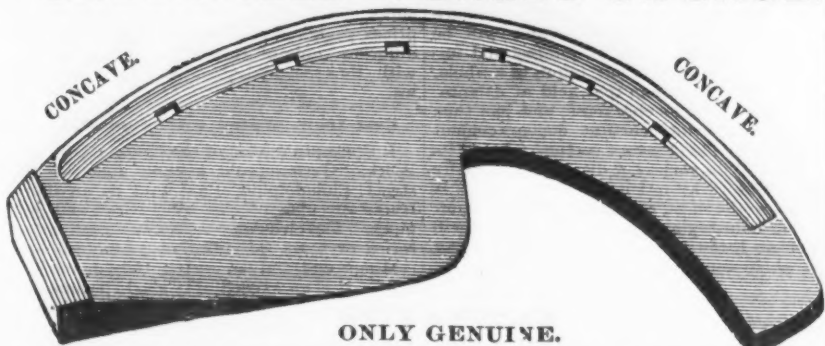
**Pig Iron.**—The lull noted in our report of a week ago continues; the volume of business during the period under review has been exceedingly small, but an increased trade is looked for before the close of the present month. The tone of the market, as might be expected in view of the decreased demand, has weakened, but producers are confident of a reaction in the near future, and there



The Government of Hayti is placed in a serious dilemma by the revolutionists. If we believe the published accounts, her reliance just now is upon the timely arrival of the war steamer which Neafie & Co., of Philadelphia, have been fitting out for her account. To effect this object, President Salomon wants a loan of \$150,000, giving good real estate security. Frazier & Co. of New York, who furnish the arms, are with the builders that the steamer is ordered for the West India fruit trade.



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ONLY GENUINE.

We now control the Patents for these Shoes, having succeeded the Greenfield Tool Co. in their manufacture and sale. Recent decisions of the United States Court have sustained the validity of these patents, giving us exclusive right to make Concave Ox Shoes. We believe them to be the best and best-selling shoe in market, and offer them with the fullest guarantees. With our facilities we can fill large orders at short notice, and are now ready to do it.

No. 1, Full Length, Concave, 5 inches, Weight, per Set of Eight Shoes, 3 pounds.  
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 " 3, " " " 6 " " " " " " 4 "  
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Packed in boxes or kegs of 100 pounds, half each rights and lefts. Full weight, and no charge for packages.

For orders of 1 ton or more.....11 cts. per pound.  
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 Terms, Net Cash, 30 days.

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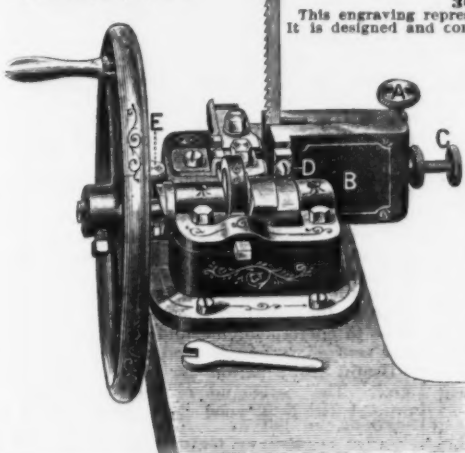
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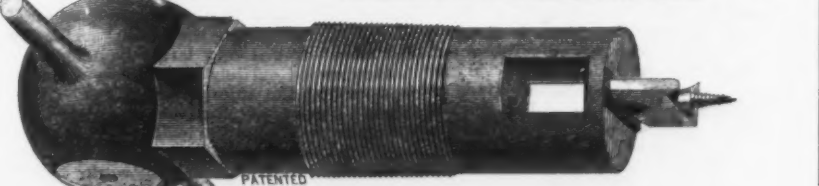
## Amesbury's Band Saw Setting Machine.

Patented, May 2, 1882.



WILL SET SAWS FROM 1/4 INCH TO 2 INCHES WIDE ACCURATELY  
 AT THE RATE OF  
 300 Teeth per Minute.  
 This engraving represents our new Band Saw Setting Machine.  
 It is designed and constructed upon entirely new principles, and  
 embodies all the good features of hand-work  
 in combination with the speed and regular-  
 ity of machine work. The users of band saws  
 have long felt the need of a machine that  
 would hold a narrow saw in a rigid position  
 and set the teeth without straining the blade;  
 and in response to inquiries from many of our  
 leading manufacturers, we have perfected a  
 machine that will set the teeth on any band  
 saw without in any manner affecting the  
 blade. It is arranged to work by an easy,  
 uniform crank motion, and when the teeth  
 to be set is fed into position, the blade is  
 firmly locked between the steel jaws of a  
 vice, and remains immovable while the teeth  
 is set to any degree required. As the crank  
 goes forward the blade is released, when  
 the next tooth is fed up to the dies, the  
 blade again locked in vice, and this to be set  
 in the opposite direction. All these move-  
 ments are automatic, and can be carried on  
 at a speed of 300 teeth per minute. The feeder  
 picks up only the tooth that is to be set, con-  
 sequently each tooth is fed to its proper po-  
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 further expense is required outside of the  
 machine, as the band saw is simply hung up  
 over the machine on a wooden bracket, on  
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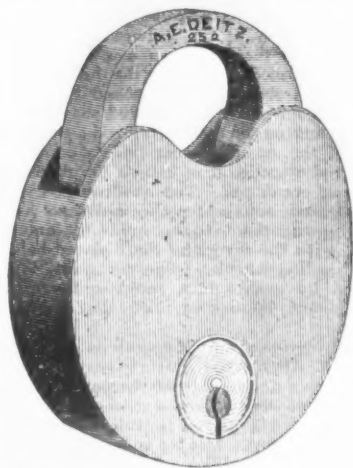
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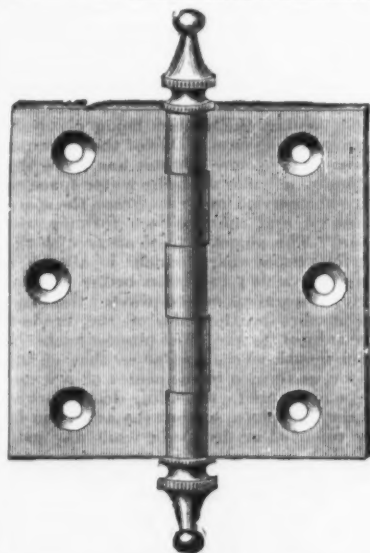
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FACTORIES,  
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The POOREST CONDUCTOR of heat  
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 Sample and circular free by mail.

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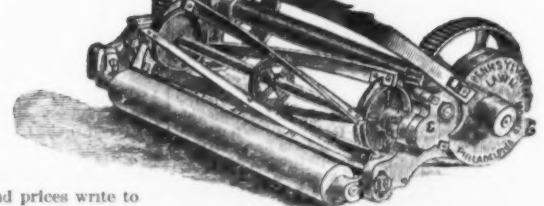


1883.

## PENNSYLVANIA

## LAWN MOWER.

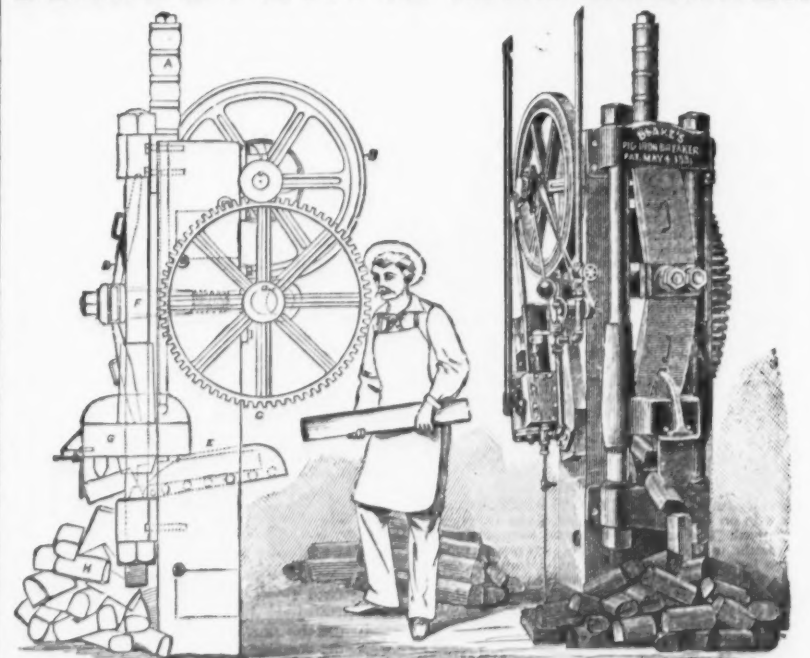
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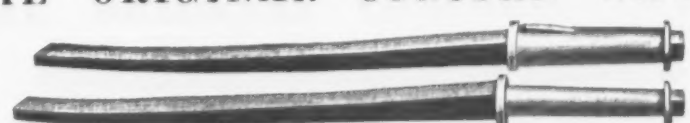
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## FOREIGN.

## FRANCE.

(Moniteur des Interests Matériels)

PARIS, August 20, 1883.—Metals.—Business might be more active; the feeling here is decidedly less buoyant, in consequence of the accounts from the agricultural districts, which are not so favorable with respect to crops as they have been. Metals have therefore been duller and lower. We quote at the close: Copper, 163 75 @ 167.50 francs; 100 kg. Ingots and Slabs, 171 25, and Best Selected, 171; Pure Corcoran Ore, 170. Tin, Banca, 212.50; Billiton and Straits, 250; Australian, 250, and English, 247.50. Lead, 31 @ 31.75, and Spelter, 30.50 @ 31. In this branch there is greater confidence manifested since the Chamber of Deputies ratified the Government arrangement with leading railroads. At the North, where but quite recently everything was flat, and the output had been reduced, the tendency is at present decidedly the other way; yet they maintain the moderate quotation of 16 @ 16.50 francs for 100 kg. Charcoal, 10, selling at 24. Sheets at 23 @ 20 and Wire Nails, No. 18, in bulk, at 27. The Haute-Marne has been more active on the basis of 18.50 @ 19 francs. Merchant, At Longwy, in the Neuville and Montieu, on the contrary, business has relaxed into an expectant attitude. Meanwhile stocks of Pig Iron have run very low in that district. They sell White Pig 6.50, and Foundry, No. 3, 7.50. In the Center, at St. Etienne, great activity is noticeable at the Steel works, both for the navy and in Rails, of which the Southern Railway ordered 15,000,000 francs' worth. Coal is in good position and firm.

## BELGIUM.

(Moniteur Industriel.)

BRUXELLES, August 27, 1883.—Iron.—Our market shows no decided symptoms either way; the fact is that the campaign has not yet opened, many leading merchants and manufacturers not yet having returned to active business, but the feeling is decidedly cheerful, and the prospect for a revival encouraging; especially at Charleroi there is great firmness in the iron market. English Pig Iron has been dealt in at a decline of 500 @ 700. Foundry Pig is worth 7.25 francs; 100 kg. At Charleroi, and Puddling, 5.00; Merchant, 5.00; at 13, but may occasionally be shared 50. The import of Iron Ore into Belgium the first six months of the year has been 760,835 tons, against 528,853 last year, and the export 218,001, against 164,612. Steel Rail imports 27,000 tons, against 22,000, and exports 17,000 tons, against 20,714 tons last year, and the export to 170,000 tons. Coal has not been very active, but the situation is acknowledged to be excellent and prices remain quite firm. The import of Coal into this country during the first six months has been 33,603 tons, against 41,005 in 1882, and the export 2,007,000, against 1,008,690. Iron Coal for industrial purposes sells at 11 @ 12 francs, and for households at 17 @ 19. Coal for Coke sells at Charleroi at 15. At Liege domestic continues to sell at 18.50 @ 19. Coke is inactive at 15 @ 15.50.

## GERMANY.

(Borsenhalles.)

HAMBURG, August 27, 1883.—Iron.—Not much change has occurred since our last report. For the moment everything is weak, although the last few days there has been more doing in Westphalia, which looks like an indication that there, at least, consumers begin to think that bottom has been touched. Puddling Pig has lately been a little more active, enabling blast-furnace owners to maintain their prices, the more so since they carry but light stocks. In Bessemer Pig and Foundry the demand, though not lively, is steady. Spiegel, on the other hand, feels the lack of an export demand. The improvement in Bar Iron has not been sustained. Although the demand for Pig has been better, no large contracts transpire, chief consumers still preferring to temporize. Quotations at Düsseldorf, 9 ton, are as under: Spiegel, 62 @ 64 marks; White Pig, 55; Luxembourg, 40; Charcoal, 56 @ 58; Foundry, 50; 100 kg. 50; Spanish Madera Foundry, 80 @ 82; English Pig, No. 1, 60 @ 62; English Bessemer, at port of ship ment, 49; Spanish Madera, at Rotterdam, 61 @ 62; German Bessemer, 57 @ 58; Merchant, 13 @ 15; and Sheet, 17 @ 18. Metals have been weak, and the ensuing quotations may be shaded: German Pig Lead, which is dull, 13 @ 13.50; Copper, 100 kg. at 76; other brands, 70 @ 78; Tin inactive, 105 @ 108; Spelter, without anything doing, 15-15 @ 15.50.

## HOLLAND.

(Koch &amp; Vlierboom.)

ROTTERDAM, Aug. 18, 1883.—Tin.—Our market has been excessively quiet, with some dealings in Banca, spot, at 55.50, and Billiton do. at 55.50, while distant offers of the latter are worth 56. At this decline there has resulted more business, leading to a recovery of 56. Banca, spot, at 57, spot, and 57.50, deliverable from the next sale, while Billiton, spot, sold at 56, and distant futures at 56.75.

## AUSTRIA.

(Austrian Trade Journal.)

VIENNA, Aug. 21, 1883.—Iron.—The satisfactory condition of the iron market in Austria-Hungary induced some makers of Structural Iron to raise their prices, but they have not succeeded in firmly establishing this advance, which, moreover, would only invite importation if they did. In other branches of the iron trade, wherever works have plenty of orders on hand, these ask an advance, but, also, so far with but partial success. Sheet Iron, on the other hand, tends still upward without much of an effort to push it. Merchant Iron has remained steady at 120 florins, Styrian, and 120 Bohemian, a moderate trade transpiring therein. This may also be said of Pig Iron. The trade in Tools and Hardware has not yet been properly started, but prospects, as regards these, could hardly be better, for, with the fair cereal and other crops in Austria-Hungary, the purchasing capacity of the agricultural population is sufficient to warrant a good fall campaign in these goods.

## EAST INDIES.

(Dummler &amp; Co.)

BATAVIA, July 14, 1883.—Tin.—The Billiton Company's sale on the 27th ult. of 16,700 Slabs averaged 54.41 @ picul. The next sale of about as much, say, 15,000 picul, is to come off on the 28th prox., to be followed by sales of equal amount October 30, December 22, February 26, 1884, and April 29. No landings from Banca in June. Since Jan. 1, 1883, has found buyers at 2 guineas, and continues difficult of sales; English Bars, Round and Square, assorted, have brought 6.75, and Corrugated Galvanized Sheets, 14; nothing doing in Hoops and Common Sheets. English Copper Sheathing, assorted sizes, has been taken at 67. Wire Nails, salable at 10.75 @ 11. Petroleum.—Arrivals from New York since January 1 run up 55,704 casks. Coal.—Arriv. since Jan. 1—14,400 tons from England and 21,100 tons from Australia. Exchange, \$1.19 @ \$1.19 7/8 @ 2 months' sight on London.

(Schmidt, Kustermann &amp; Co.)

PERANG, July 14, 1883.—Tin.—Since 28th ult. the market opened at \$2.25 for Tongkah and \$2.20 for Larut, and after a few slight fluctuations now closes at \$2.30 and \$2.20, respectively. Receipts, 10,000 picul, of which Chinese took 6000 and Europeans 1800. Exchange, 1/2.

(Hessener &amp; Co.)

COLOMBO, July 25, 1883.—Punch.—A small business has been transacted at ensuing rates, in rapese, 1 ton: Fine Lump, 14 @ 15; Ordinary, 12 @ 13; Chips, 6 @ 7; and Dust, 4 @ 5. Shipments have been since October 1: 56,054 cwt. to England, 200 to Trieste, 200 to Havre, 10 to India, and 17,500 to the United States, together, 207,754, against 151,701 in 1882, 177,501 in 1881, and 134,374 in 1880. Exchange, six months' sight, 1/2 @ 1/2.

The machinists of New York and vicinity are about to form a union. Their grievance is that they do not receive as much pay as they did when their labor was in demand at \$4 to \$5 per day.

## Compound Locomotive Engines.

In a paper on this above subject, recently read before the British Institution of Mechanical Engineers, Mr. Francis W. Webb stated that about five years ago he converted an old outside cylinder engine with 15-inch cylinders into a compound, by lining up one of the cylinders and reducing it to 9 inches in diameter. This engine has until the last three months been working light passenger trains on the Ashby and Nuneaton branch of the London and Northwestern Railway, and the elements of success seen in its working led to the construction of the compound locomotive "Experiment," which was what its name implies.

The two main objects Mr. Webb had in view when designing the "Experiment" were, firstly, to attain to greater economy in consumption of fuel; and, secondly, to do away with coupling-rods, while at the same time obtaining a greater weight for adhesion than would be possible on only one pair of driving-wheels without rapid destruction of the road. The driving-wheels being no longer coupled, there is less grinding action in passing round curves, and it is not even necessary that one pair should be of the same diameter as the other.

The engine "Experiment" was constructed at the Crewe Locomotive Works in the latter part of 1881, and has now been at work over 12 months and has run nearly 100,000 miles, chiefly with the Scotch and Irish limited mails. While on this work it made a daily run of 310 miles, and, this being a longer mileage than the engines are accustomed to run in the time, two drivers and firemen were appointed to work the engine, one from Crewe to London and back one day, and the other the day following, in order thoroughly to test the engine in every way before building any more of a similar class. The engine has throughout proved itself to be very steady when running, which is no doubt due to the arrangement of the cylinders; the engine being practically balanced, and having no coupling-rods, is enabled to run at very high speeds.

This principle having been proved correct, it was thought advisable, owing to the increasing weights and the high speeds of passenger trains, that in designing the new engines they should be made more powerful than the present type. Accordingly, the high-pressure cylinders have been increased from 11 1/2 to 13 inches in diameter, leaving the low-pressure cylinder of 26 inches diameter the same as at present, with the exception of the ports, which have been increased from 1 1/2 x 14 to 2 x 16 inches, in order to give more freedom for the exhaust.

The construction will be readily understood from the following description: There are two outside high-pressure cylinders of 13 inches diameter, and one inside low-pressure cylinder of 26 inches diameter, the stroke in each case being the same, namely, 24 inches. The two high-pressure cylinders have their steam-chests placed underneath, in order to allow the valves to fall from their faces, so that there is no wear when the steam is shut off. These two cylinders are attached to the outside frame-plates immediately under the foot plate, about midway between the leading and middle wheels, and are connected through their piston-rods and connecting-rods to the trailing-wheels. The low-pressure cylinder, which has its steam-chest on the top, is placed directly over the leading axle, and is carried between two cross steel plates, one at either end, securely fixed between the main frames; its connecting-rod lays hold of a single-throw crank on the axle of the middle pair of wheels.

The steam is supplied through the regulator in the dome to a brass T-pipe on the smoke-box tube-plate, and thence by two 3-inch copper steam pipes, first running parallel to the tube-plate, then through the back-plate that carries the low-pressure cylinder, and between the plates of the inside and outside frames, to the steam-chests of the high-pressure cylinders. The exhaust steam from these cylinders is returned by two 4-inch pipes running parallel with the high-pressure pipes, through the back-plate that carries the low-pressure cylinder, and into the smoke-box; following round the curved sides of the smoke-box nearly to the top, each pipe passes across to the opposite side, and enters the steam-chest of the low-pressure cylinder through passages in the cover. Thus the exhaust steam becomes superheated in these pipes by the waste gases in the smoke-box, while the large capacity of the pipes themselves obviates the necessity for a separate steam-receiver. The final exhaust escapes from each side of the steam-chest of the low-pressure cylinder into the blast-pipe, and thence to the chimney in the usual way, the only difference being that there are only half the number of blasts for urging the fire compared with an ordinary engine; yet the compound engine steams very freely, and has a blast-pipe of 4 1/2-inch diameter for the final exhaust, compared with 4 1/2-inch in engines of the ordinary type.

The steam-chest cover of the large cylinder is provided with a relief valve, so adjusted that the pressure admitted may never exceed 75 pounds per square inch, and a small pipe which is connected to the low-pressure steam pipe, and carried back to a gauge fixed inside the cab, shows at a glance the actual pressure of steam being used in the large cylinder. Arrangement is also made whereby steam direct from the boiler can be admitted to the low-pressure cylinder, which is useful for warming up before starting. The valve motion adopted for this engine is that designed by Mr. David Joy, which does away with all eccentric-rods, and considerably reduces the number of working parts per cylinder, as well as the weight of the valve gear. The arrangement, however, for the new engines differs slightly from that on the "Experiment," in order to do away with the trunnion bearings on the foot-plate. The total number of working or moving parts for the three sets of valve motion in the compound engine is 20, and their total weight 284 pounds, while the number of working parts in the two sets of valve motion in the ordinary standard engine is 24, and their weight 793 pounds, the reversing shafts in each case not being taken into consideration. The valve-chests being on the under side of the high-pressure cylinders, the motion-disks carrying the quadrant bars

have to be placed in a corresponding position, and this is done by securing them to the under side of the slide-bars. The quadrant bars, which are made of soft-steel case-hardened, are each grooved to a radius equal to the length of the valve-rod links, and working in their grooves are brass slide-blocks, carried by the lifting links, to the lower end of which is attached the valve-rod link, and to the upper end the compensating link on the connecting-rod; the upper end of the compensating link is controlled by a rod attached to a return crank on the trailing crank-pin. The quadrant bars are lengthened out below the disks, so as to allow attachment to be made by another link, with the reversing shaft placed behind the trailing-wheels. The reversing is effected by means of a screw-and-lever arrangement connected with the reversing shaft.

The high-pressure slide-valves are of the Trick or Allen type, which gives double lead shown at the edge of the port when the piston is at the end of its stroke; they have a travel of 3 1/2 inches in full forward and backward gear. The lap is 3/4 inch, and the lead is 1/4 inch; the port opens 3/4 inch for admission and closes at 70 per cent. of the stroke. The sizes of the ports in the cylinders are: Steam, 1 1/2 by 9 inches; exhaust, 2 1/2 by 9 inches. The valve motion of the low-pressure cylinder differs slightly from that of the high pressure. Instead of disks there is a cast-iron shaft, carried in brackets, which are fixed to the inside frames, and the quadrant guides are bolted to it in the middle of its length. The other parts of the motion are similar to those of the high-pressure cylinders, the only difference being that the end of the compensating link in the low-pressure motion is attached to a radius-rod centered on the back-plate of the cylinder. At one end of the reversing shaft is fixed a lever, which is coupled direct by a long rod to the reversing handle on the foot-plate. The travel of the valve in full gear is 4 1/2 inches; lap of valve, 1 inch; lead, 1/4 inch; the port opens 1 inch for admission and is closed at 75 per cent. of the stroke, and the exhaust closes at 93 per cent. of the stroke. The sizes of the ports are, for steam, 2 by 16 inches; exhaust, 3 1/2 by 16 inches.

The reversing gears of the high and low pressure cylinders are designed to work independently of each other, and no inconvenience has been experienced by this arrangement; they could, if desired, be connected, while no material advantage would be gained. With regard to the degree of expansion at which the engine is worked, in practice the low-pressure cylinder is kept nearly in full gear, while all the expansion is done in the small high-pressure cylinders, so that no more steam is used than is absolutely necessary to do the work. The commercial results with the engine "Experiment" have been very satisfactory. During the time the engine was working the Irish mail from Crewe to London, and the limited Scotch mail from London to Crewe, the average consumption per train mile was 26.6 pounds of coal, compared with 34.6 pounds, the average consumption of the standard four-coupled passenger engines with 17-inch cylinders and 34-inch stroke, the boilers being precisely the same in each case. One of the principal features in the new engines has been the adoption of a boiler with the water space of the fire-box carried under the grate, the space between it and the fire-bars forming the ash-pan. The object is to do away with the rigid foundation-ring, which is always a source of trouble; to obtain better circulation for the water, and to prevent the lodgment of dirt on the sides of the fire-box where subject to the most intense heat. A flanged mouth-piece, similar to that of the fire-door, is formed in the center of a water space, and covered with sliding-doors worked from the foot-plate, so that the ashes can be easily removed or dropped; while any sediment that may collect in the water space can readily be removed through the wash-out plugs in the sides of the fire-box, there being a clear passage from side to side when the covers are taken off. The mouth of the ash-pan is made of such a width that the tube-plate can be taken out and replaced by a new one without disturbing the other parts of the fire-box.

The engine, although still working on the London section, has been taken off the Irish and Scotch mail trains, because it was not fitted with the gear for working the vacuum brake with which these trains are now provided, and it was not thought advisable to bring the engine into the shops for the present in order to apply the vacuum-brake gear. The new engines, however, are fitted with ejectors and all the necessary gear for working the vacuum brake, and in addition with a steam brake, acting between the two pairs of driving-wheels. This is also coupled to the tender brake-gear, so that the brake is applied to the engine and tender at the same time. A single movement of the engineer's brake-handle serves to apply both the vacuum and the steam brake simultaneously, and similarly to release them together.

## TRADE PUBLICATIONS.

## Labor-Saving Machinery and Tools.

Wiley & Russell Mfg. Company, of Greenfield, Mass., have just sent us an illustrated price list of their screw-cutting and other labor-saving machinery and tools. It is in the form of a small catalogue, embracing some 40 pages, and will undoubtedly be found serviceable by intending purchasers. Numerous engravings illustrating the different appliances accompany the tables of sizes and prices and other particulars, and in every case impart a fair idea of the general appearance and arrangement of the machinery.

## The Louisville Exposition.

The official catalogue of the great Southern Exposition, at Louisville, Ky., which was opened on Aug. 1, 1883, to continue 100 days, has just reached us. As usual in publications of this kind, the catalogue embraces a classification of the exhibits, a list of the exhibitors and numerous other particulars of a similar nature, together with a general plan of the exhibition grounds. Referring to the classification of the exhibits, we find five de-

partments devoted to natural products, machinery, manufactures, transportation, and music, literature and art. These, again, are subdivided into 25 groups, which will be found to contain much of interest and importance. The exposition, taken as a whole, has a wider scope than that held at Atlanta. It is national in its character, and has thus far received the heartiest encouragement from the people of every section. In all its details and its variety of displays it is worthy of the closest attention of every class. It furnishes the most practical means of stimulating industry and developing art, and will be of no little value in practically uniting the whole country.

## Tinners' Supplies.

The advertising matter put forth by the N. & G. Taylor Company, of Philadelphia, Pa., has always been of a unique character, and at the same time calculated to serve the best interests of the trade for whose perusal it was intended. In previous notices of publications issued by this house, we have referred to the early volumes that they circulated before the advent of *The Metal Worker*, and when the literature of the tinner's trade was far less than it is at present. Their books at that time contained more than a tinner needed to know than anything else that was in his reach. Of late the character of the publications issued by this house has been changed with a direct reference to the changed conditions in the trade and the requirements of the patrons of the firm, to whom they are addressed. They are always interesting, always valuable to those whose eyes they are intended to reach, and always keep the name of the N. & G. Taylor Company favorably before the public. The volume for 1883, which has recently been issued, is fully up to the high standard which this house has established. It is a pamphlet of 270 odd pages, replete with trade matter in the way of catalogues of various lines of goods, and yet contains much technical information that is of value to the trade. A prominent feature is the private telegraph code which this company has devised for the use of its patrons, by which telegraphic orders can be sent so cheaply as to warrant the frequent use of the wires. A full description of "Hendy," "Old Style" and "Westminster," the special brands of tin plate which the N. & G. Taylor Company warrant with regard to quality, occupy the early pages in the book. Full particulars with reference to the manner of making "Old Style" tin are given in a way to interest all who care to know about the manufacture of the material that they use. A list of the special sizes of tin plate kept in stock by this concern occupies three pages in fine type. Special sizes of tin plate for milk pans, stove doors and other purposes are also given. Following preliminary matter of this character are illustrations of creamery goods, cotton-factory cans, cheese-factory articles, can trimmings and various styles of milk cans, succeeding which is a regular list of those goods ordinarily handled by dealers in tinner's supplies. A list of tinner's machines and tools, including cornice machinery, is also contained in the book. A number of useful tables and arithmetical rules, of a character calculated to be of use to those who make calculations in the tin-shop, are presented in the latter part of the book. A unique feature of this volume is a sheet of cardboard which is bound in among the pages, and which has been made to represent galvanized iron. The illusion is so perfect that, at first glance, one would believe that a piece of galvanized iron had been stitched into the book. Another page has been bronzed to imitate sheet copper, while black sheet iron is displayed in a similar manner, these several pages facing the departments in the book in which goods of the kind are described.

## Steam Heating.

The Utica Steam Gauge Company, of Utica, N. Y., send us two very beautifully printed and exceedingly attractive little pamphlets devoted to the description and illustration of the steam-heating apparatus which they manufacture. The wood boiler, the wood grate, air-valve and air-box are among some of the principal patents which they hold. One of the circulars is devoted entirely to letters from various parties who have used their steam-heating apparatus and have found it satisfactory. The boiler is of the vertical tubular type, but with a return draft down through the flues, the fire-box being surrounded with water. Tables are given of the sizes and dimensions of various boilers and settings for different kinds of heating, together with particulars of the grate, steam valves, pressure regulators, &c. The catalogue will be found useful by the trade.

## Registers and Ventilators.

We have received from Messrs. Hall & Carpenter, of Philadelphia, Pa., their price list for 1883 of warm-air registers, ventilators, &c. The goods represented are those made by the Tuttle & Bailey Mfg. Co., and are in such general use that there is little need of special description at this time. The pamphlet has been carefully prepared, and is arranged in a very convenient manner for reference. By means of wide margins space is afforded for thorough indexing, and portions of the pages being cut away so as to reveal the several titles printed on the margins, it is possible to turn to any item desired instantly. Besides this, a very comprehensive

index is presented in the early part of the book, which still further facilitates references. The list is very complete, and includes prices, together with illustrations, of all the different kinds of registers and ventilators, with their trimmings, that are in general use.

## Cast-Iron Water and Gas Pipes

I. S. Cassin & Co., of the Union Hydraulic Works, Germantown avenue and Second street, Philadelphia, Pa., send us an illustrated circular of cast-iron water and gas pipes. The circular consists essentially of a series of some 70 different pipes, shapes, castings and valves which they manufacture. It is an exceedingly good specimen of lithographic work, and as an illustration of the various forms of T's, Y's, crosses, bends, reducers, hubs, &c., is as good a piece of work as we have ever seen, and has the advantage of showing the purchaser exactly what he can obtain. Each casting is numbered, and reference to catalogues thus made easy and certain.

## Car Builders' Machinery.

Williams, White & Co., Moline, Ill., have an illustrated catalogue of their special machinery, among which are machines to bend iron shapes, bend arch bars for freight-car trucks, drop-hammers, 6-spindle gang boring machines, skein setters, upright drill-presses, and the Justice spring power hammer. With most of these machines our readers are already familiar. The drop press is a new feature in the form of a connection between the drop and the crank-pin. This consists of a number of strands of Manila rope, and is exceedingly effective. The Arch bar-bending machine is applicable to all sorts of agricultural work, and, in fact, any kind of work where iron is to be put into peculiar forms. The Emery jointer is intended for making a close joint between the share and mold-board of a steel plow, and we fancy might be employed for many other kinds of work to good advantage. The company also make small blast furnaces of various patterns. Some of our readers have recently sent queries in regard to the manufacture of such furnaces, and we are glad to be able to mention the address at the present time. The company manufacture, in addition, steam engines up to 24 inches bore, saw mills, couplings, &c.

## Steam Pumps.

The George F. Blake Mfg. Company, of 95 Liberty street, New York, have just issued a new illustrated catalogue. Its size is so small, being only 5 1/2 x 7 inches, that it can be readily carried in the pocket, but, notwithstanding this, it is exceedingly complete, and the engravings have been made so fine on the small scale that they are perfectly clear and give as good an idea of the pumps and different mechanisms as larger cuts would. The firm say in a circular to their friends that the catalogue contains all varieties of their improved pumps that they now manufacture. The reading matter in all cases is very full. The different styles of pumps are described, and all needful information given in regard to the work they are capable of doing and the most advantageous points. A great variety of pumps, tables of sizes, prices, &c., are given, which are all very convenient. The omission of prices from a machinist's supply catalogue is not to be wondered at, but it is not desirable in a catalogue of pumps to do this, for, though the prices may change, still they give a relative idea of cost of one size with another, which is also very convenient. The last nine or ten pages of the catalogue are devoted to special information in regard to the parts of pumps, their names, methods for ordering, telegraph code, directions to correspondents and to those using and setting up pumps, and matter entitled "Useful Information on Steam, Water, &c." The catalogue is very beautifully printed and is in good style throughout.

## Emery Grinding.

The Gem Emery Wheel and Machine Company, 123 Chambers street, New York, have just sent us a catalogue describing their improved emery-wheel and emery-wheel machinery, together with emery-grinding machinery. Their leading feature is Ware's patent anti-bursting flanges, which, it is claimed, are a perfect protection against accidents from the bursting of solid emery-wheels and grindstones. The method in which they secure this immunity from accident is by distributing the bearing surface of the wheel over a very large diameter, and holding almost entirely by pressure of elastic cushions on the sides of the wheel. They have a variety of emery-wheel machinery, from the lightest affair with a single wheel up to the largest and most complex grinder for doing large and difficult work. They have file, skate and blade grinders, stove-plate grinders, ring grinders, edge-dressing machines, truing wheels and a grinding and polishing machine. The latter is automatic and self-feeding, and especially adapted to squaring up the ends of spiral springs, hinges, butts, &c.

The iron and steel shipbuilding industry on the Delaware River is said by the Philadelphia Press to have expanded since the beginning of the present year with wonderful rapidity. The tonnage of iron and steel vessels constructed during the first half of 1883 largely exceeded that of the entire year 1882, the figures being 55,079 and 40,097 respectively.

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Spofford Hilt Brace.

The Spofford Hilt Brace is made under Letters Patent of the U. S. A., granted to N. Spofford, March 23, 1880, assigned to John S. Fray & Co.

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| No. 9.....            | " " " "       | No. 109.....                             | " " " "       |
| No. 10.....           | " " " "       | No. 110.....                             | " " " "       |
| No. 11.....           | " " " "       | No. 111.....                             | " " " "       |
| No. 12.....           | " " " "       | No. 112.....                             | " " " "       |
| No. 13.....           | " " " "       | No. 113.....                             | " " " "       |
| No. 14.....           | " " " "       | No. 114.....                             | " " " "       |

Spofford Sleeve Brace.

Sleeve Brace, Nickel Plated.

|             |               |
|-------------|---------------|
| No. 70..... | 7 inch sweep. |
| No. 71..... | " " " "       |
| No. 72..... | " " " "       |
| No. 73..... | " " " "       |
| No. 74..... | " " " "       |
| No. 75..... | " " " "       |
| No. 76..... | " " " "       |
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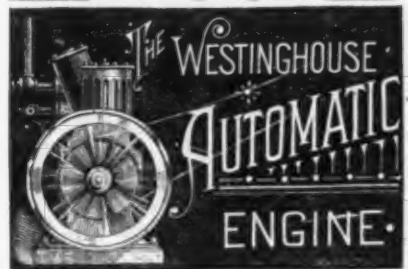
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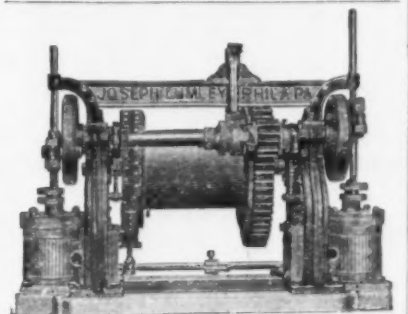
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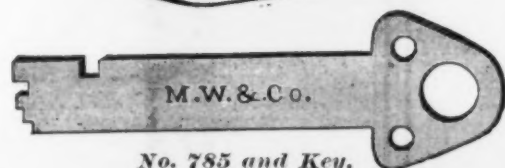
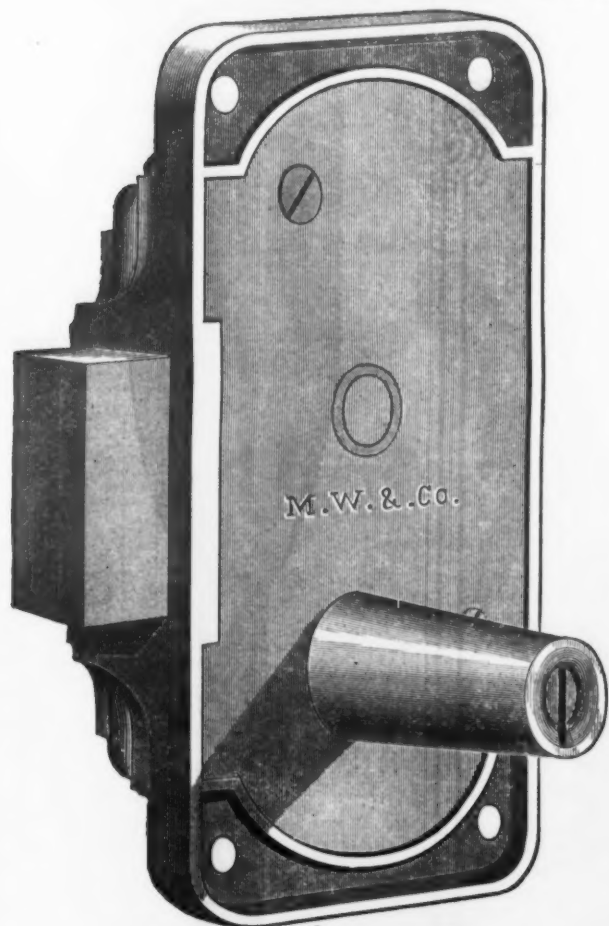
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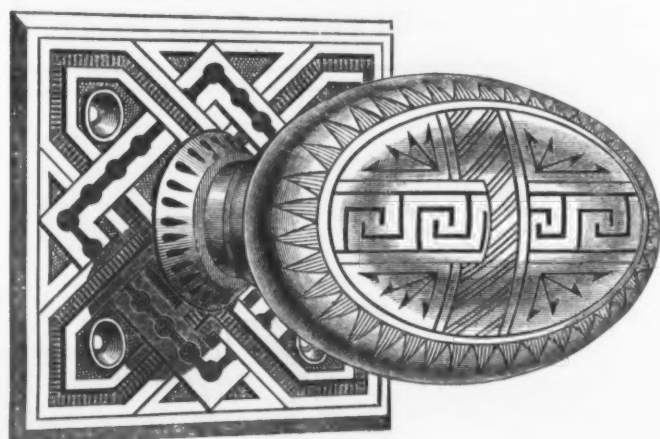


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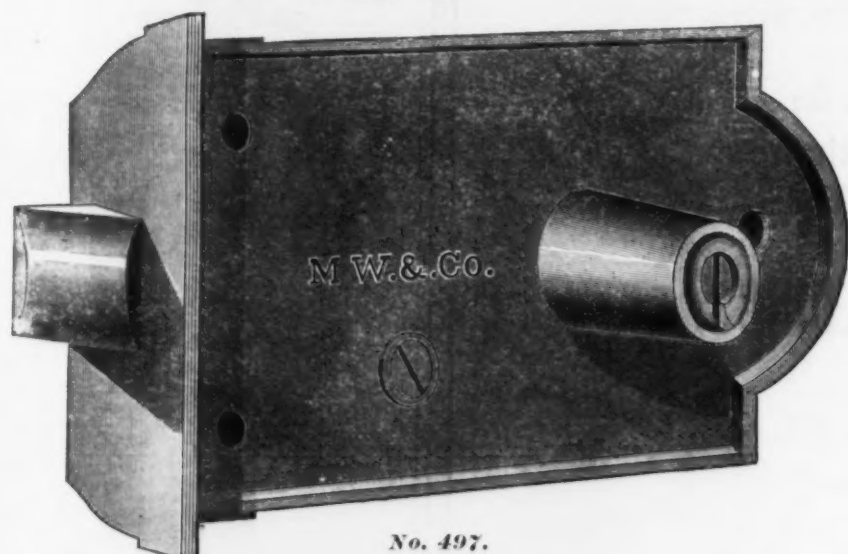
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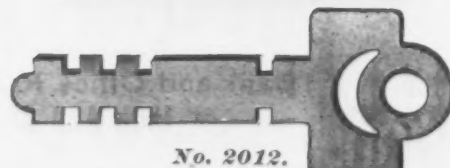
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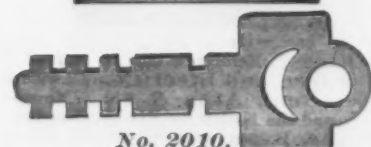
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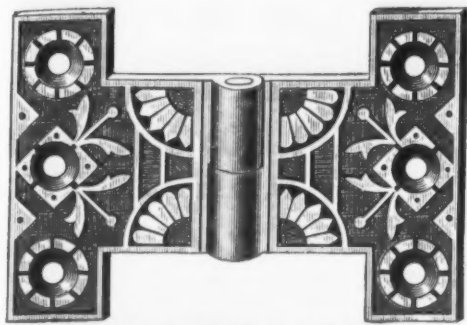
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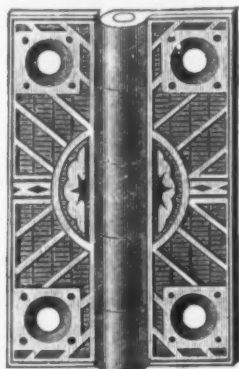
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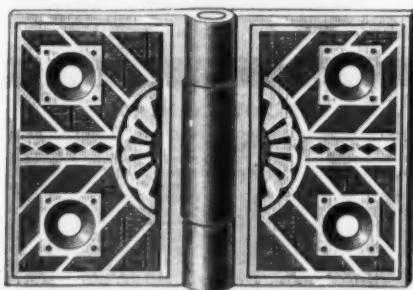
NEW YORK, and NEW HAVEN, CONN.



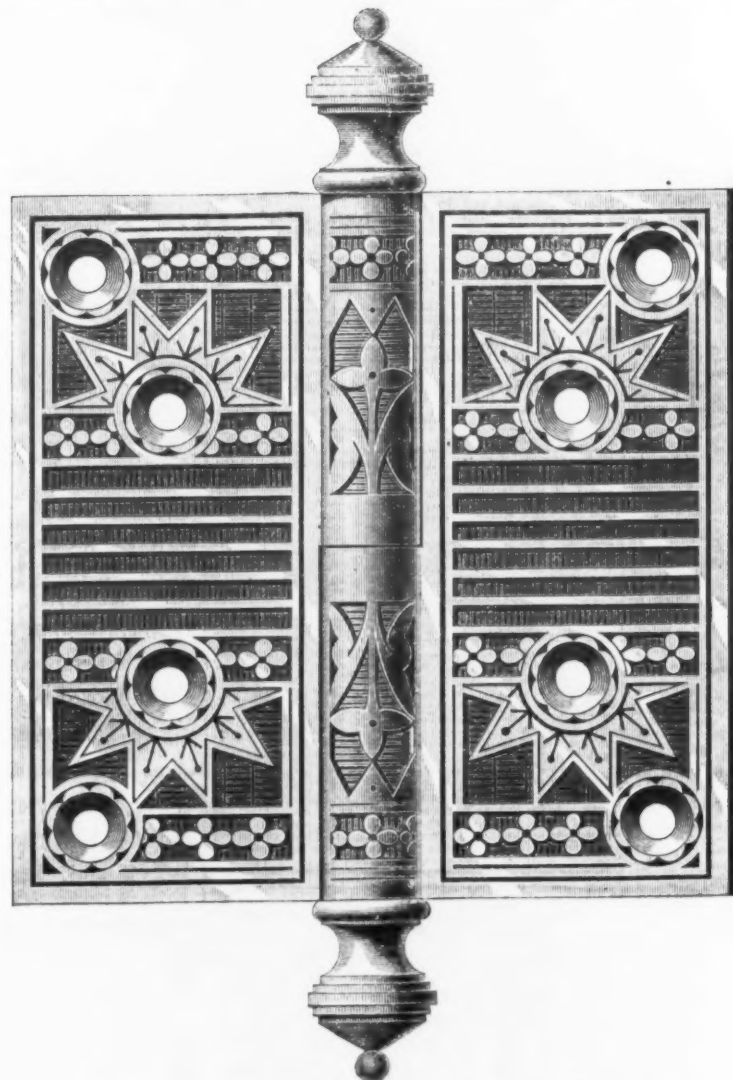
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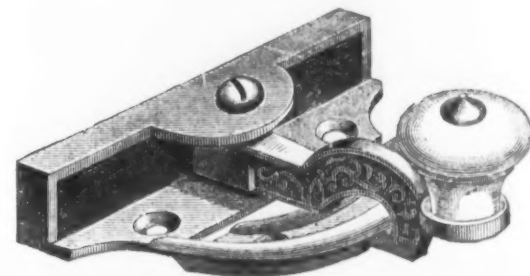
INSIDE SHUTTER HINGES.  
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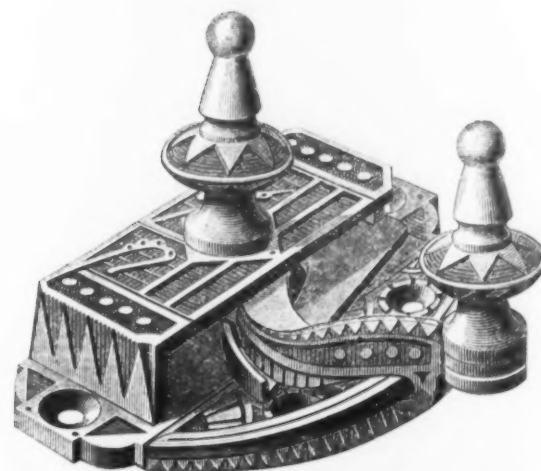
INSIDE SHUTTER HINGES.  
Berlin Bronzed and Bronze Metal.



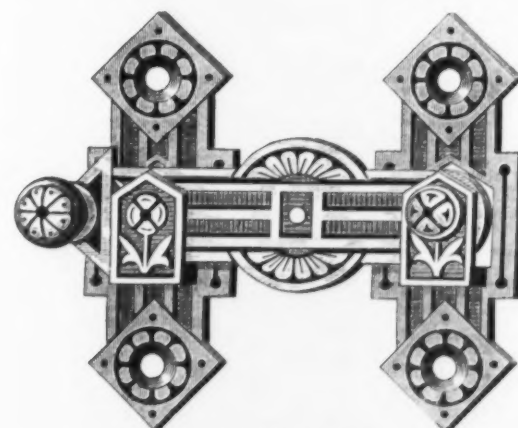
LOOSE JOINT BUTTS. No. 896, Bronze Metal.



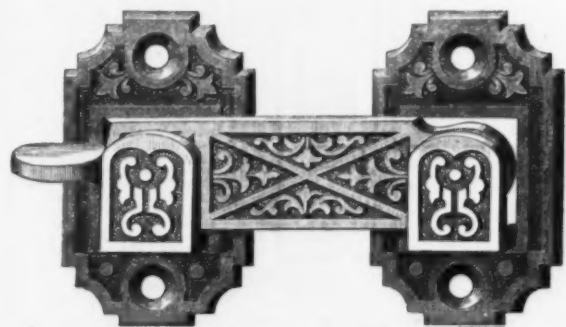
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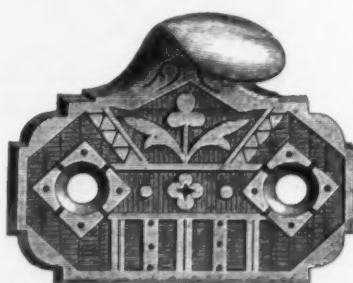
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No. 144, Bronze Metal.



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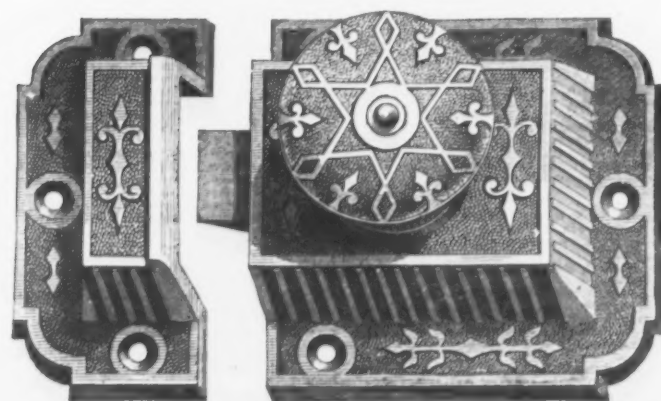
SHUTTER KNOBS.  
Berlin Bronzed and  
Bronze Metal.



DOOR PULLS, Bronze Metal.



LETTER BOX PLATES. Berlin Bronzed and Bronze Metal.

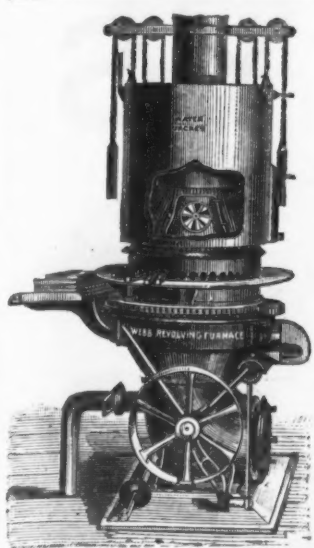


CUPBOARD TURNS.  
Berlin Bronzed and Bronze Metal.







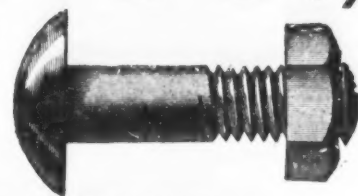


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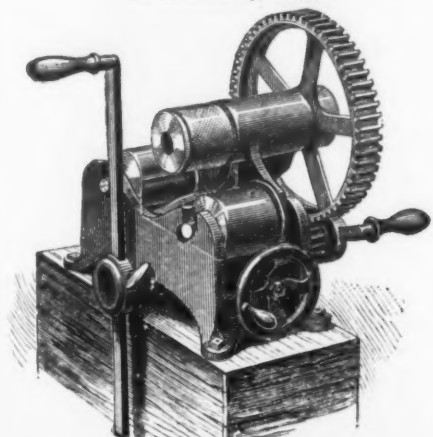
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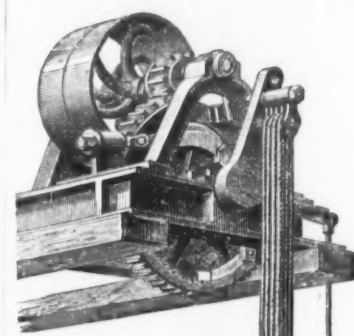
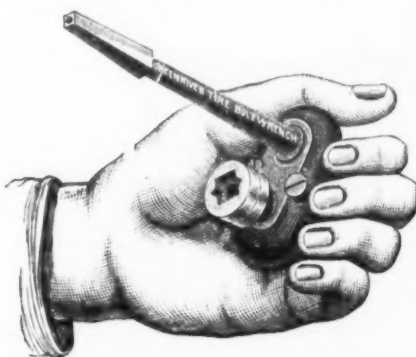


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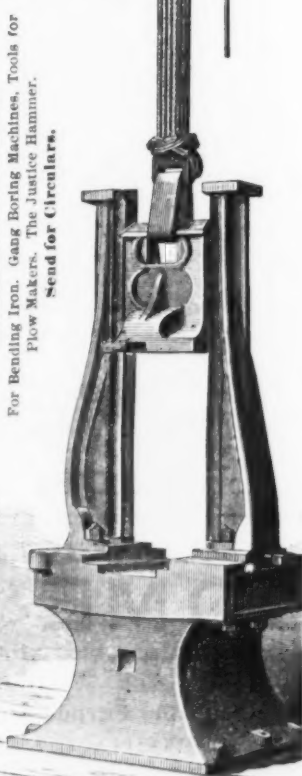
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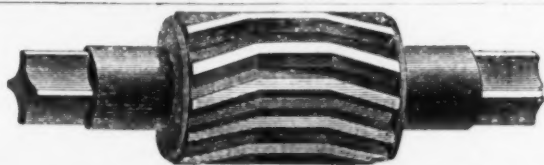


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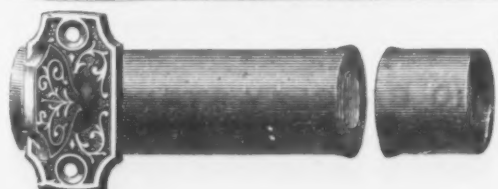
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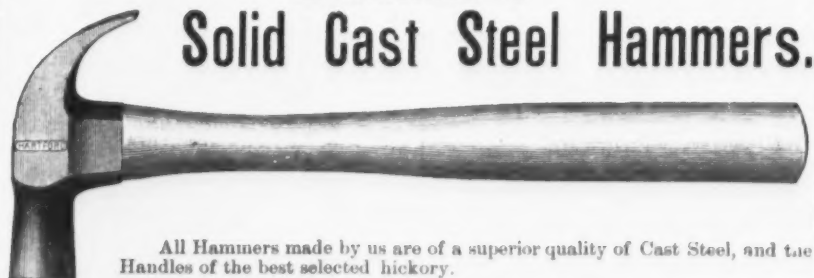
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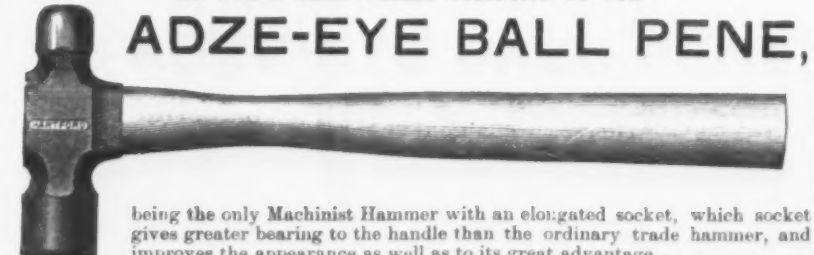


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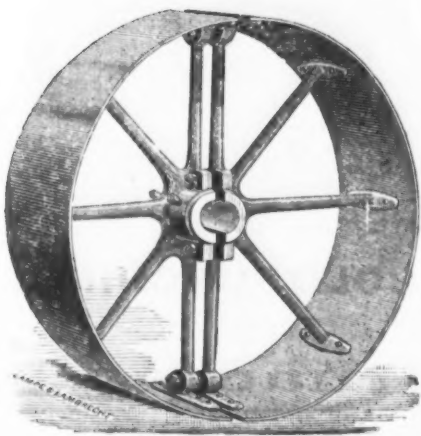
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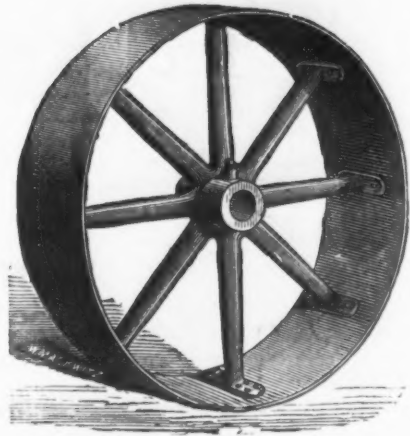


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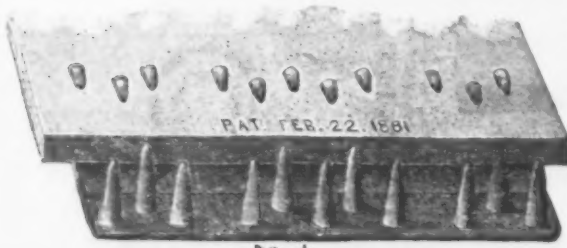
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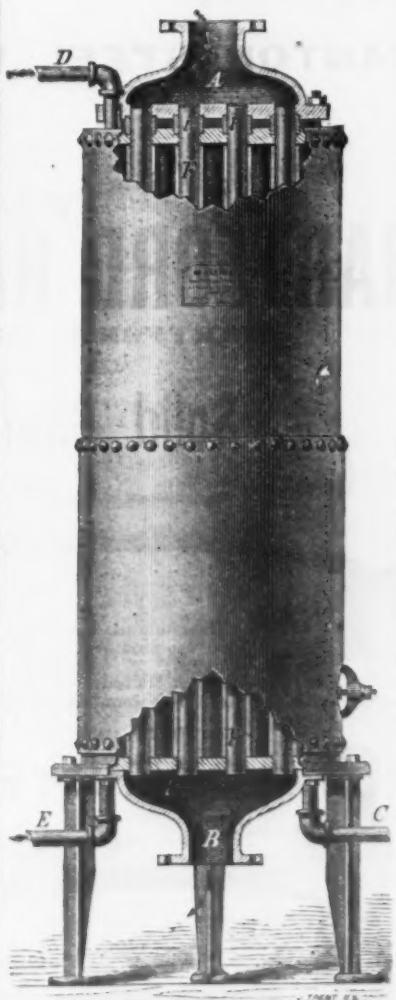
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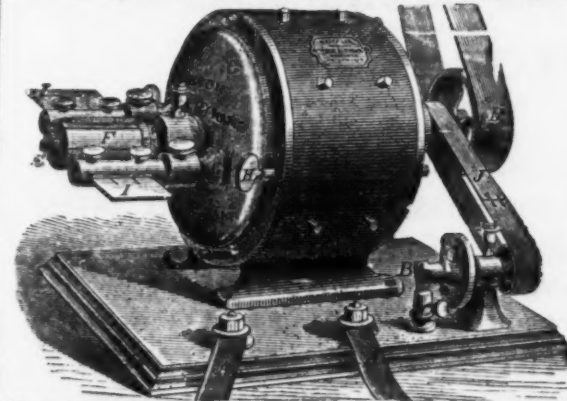
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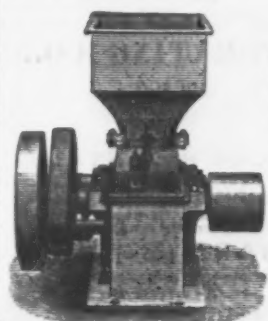
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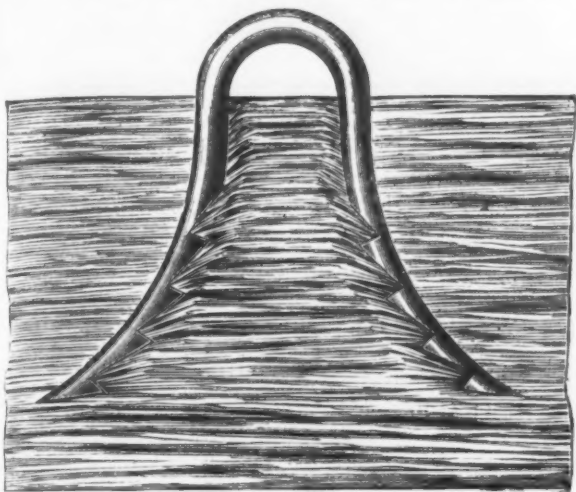
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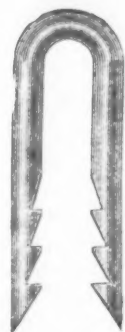
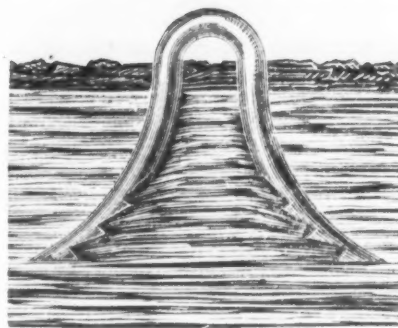
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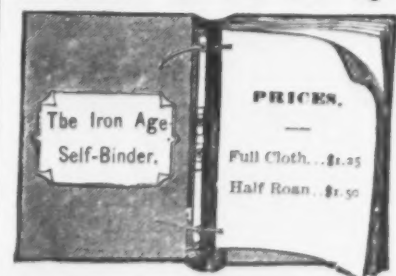
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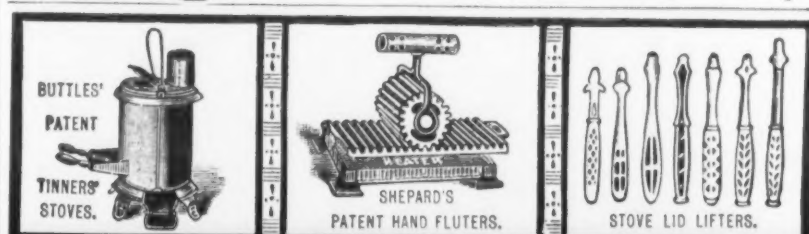
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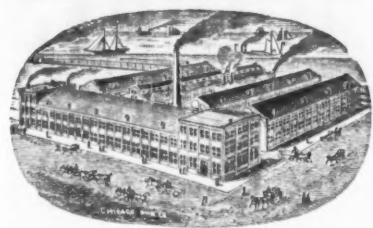
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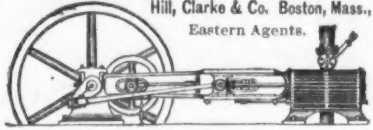




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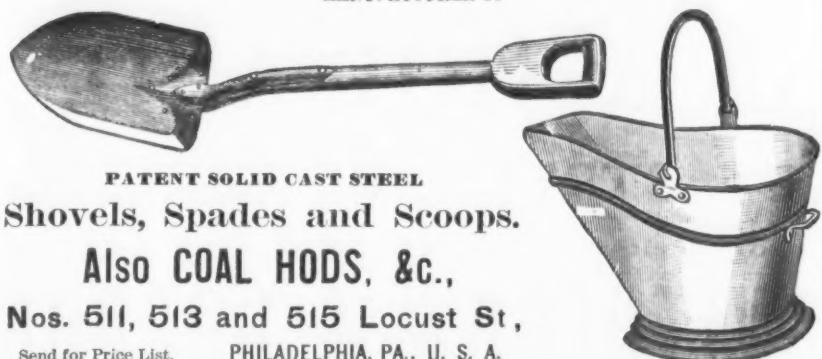


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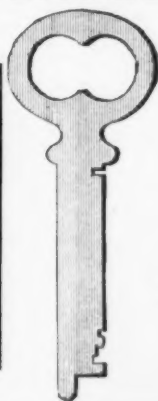
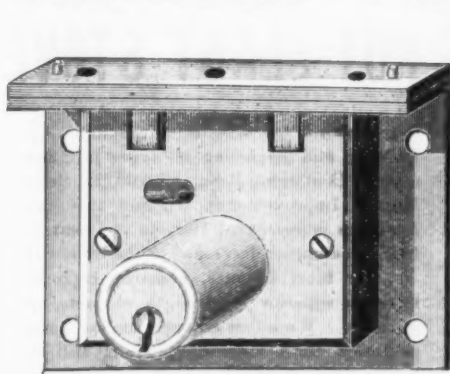
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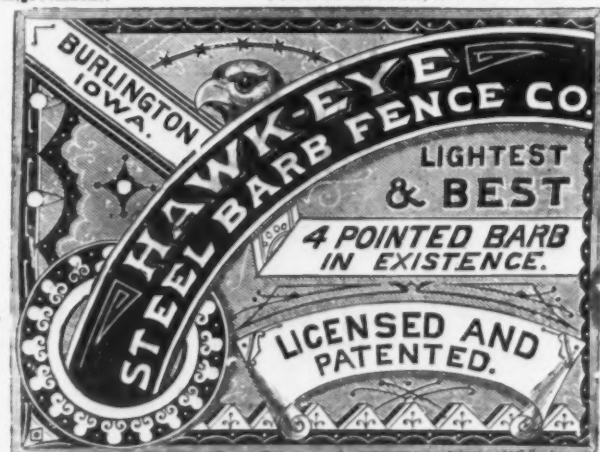
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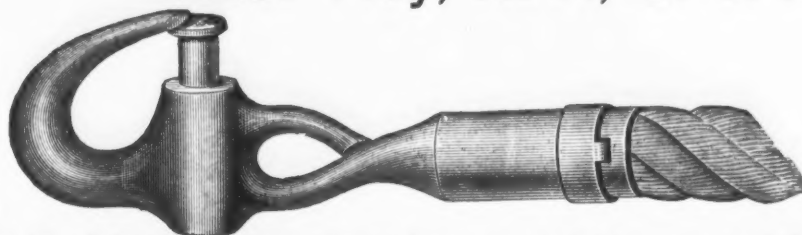
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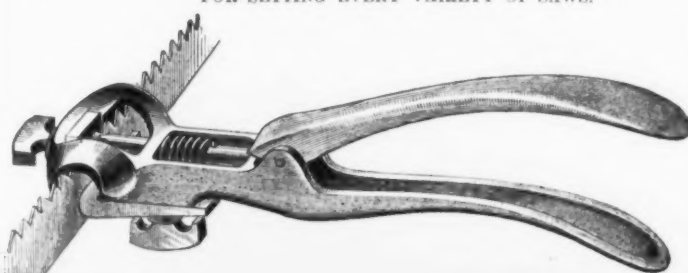
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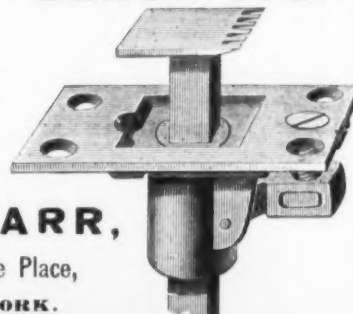
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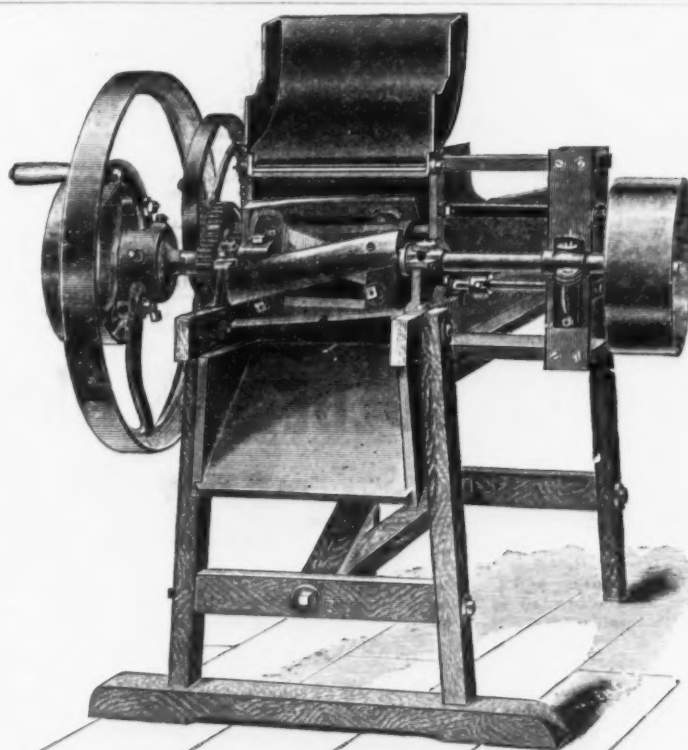
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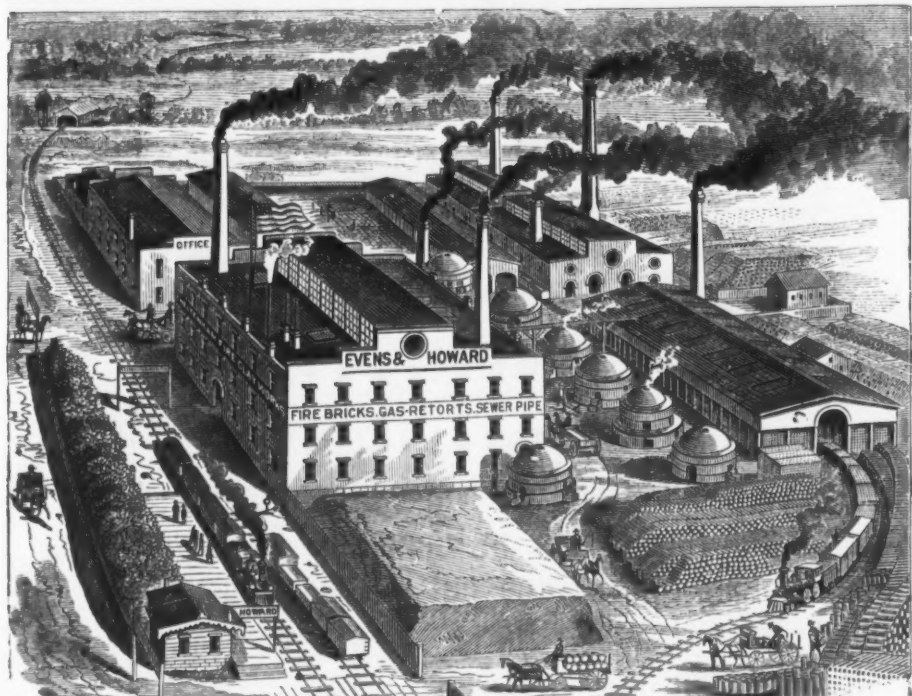
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**WHEELING HINGE CO., of WHEELING, W. VA.**

GRANGER SMITH, Patentee.

## TO OUR CUSTOMERS AND THE TRADE GENERALLY:

The undersigned, constituting the firm of Smith Bros. Mfg. Co., desire to state that, in view of the increase and detail incident to their Hasp and Staple enterprises, and the fact of each being engaged in long-established and lucrative business, ENTIRELY FOREIGN TO HARDWARE, we have found it expedient to place the former business in its proper channels of manufacture, enabling it thus to be vigorously carried on, and in a manner better subserving the interests of the trade. Owing to the arrangements referred to our very satisfactory relations in the past with Messrs. Dodman & Burke will be necessarily severed.

SMITH BROS. MFG. CO. { GRANGER SMITH, of Granger Smith & Co., Chicago.  
EDW. B. SMITH, of Smith & Davis, Buffalo.

WHEELING HINGE CO., Wheeling, W. Va.,  
Sole Licensees in and for the United  
States of America.

FRANCIS LEY, VULCAN IRON WORKS, Derby,  
Eng., Sole Licensees in and for Great Britain  
and Ireland.

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Kellogg, Johnson & Bliss,  
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Hodge & Homer,  
W. H. Miller, Bay City, Mich.  
Buhl, Sons & Co., Detroit, Mich.  
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John Pritzlaff, Milwaukee, Wis.  
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Howell Gano & Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.  
T. & A. Pickering,  
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Russell & Erwin Mfg. Co., New York City.  
Loudback, Gilbert & Co.,  
F. B. Emmons & Bro.,  
And other Leading Dealers.

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S. G. B. Cook & Co., Baltimore, Md.  
Lloyd, Supplee & Walton, Philadelphia, Pa.  
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J. G. Brenner, Son & Co.,  
Smith, Seitzer & Co.,  
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## PATENT ADJUSTABLE SOLDERING IRONS.



The only adjustable Soldering Iron combining perfect utility and simplicity of construction. Having no weak or complicated parts, it will outlast any other iron in the market. It has been subjected to the most severe tests, and in every case has given perfect satisfaction. From among the many favorable testimonials we have received, we publish the following:

WATERVLIET ARSENAL, WEST TROY, N. Y., June 9th, 1883.

The Covert Manufacturing Co., West Troy, N. Y.:

GENTLEMEN—I will state for your information that the Tinner's Soldering Tool, left at your request at this Arsenal last month for trial, has been thoroughly tested by the tinner employed here. It has been found superior to the soldering iron in common use, in that the copper tip is pivoted to the iron handle instead of being rigidly fastened thereto, and can be readily turned, so that it may form any angle with the handle that the workman may desire. With the soldering tool in common use the change in relative position of tip and handle can be made only by heating and bending the handle. Respectfully, your obedient servant,

A. MORDECAI, Lieut.-Col. of Ordnance, Commanding.

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These Coppers are designed and made expressly to be used in the construction of the Patent Adjustable Soldering Irons, described above. They are detachable, and when worn out, or a change is necessary, they can be removed from the handle and another substituted. Although we illustrate but one style, we furnish to order all sizes and styles of coppers. For sale by all jobbers handling this class of goods, and the same discounts from the list given to the trade as when purchased direct from the factory.

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Largest manufacturers of Iron  
Roofing in the world. Manu-  
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**IRON ROOFING**  
Crimped and Corrugated Siding,  
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Fire-Proof Doors, Shutters, &c.

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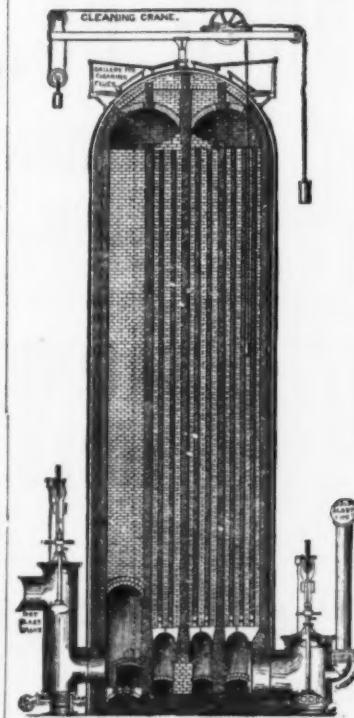
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**Coal Hods,**

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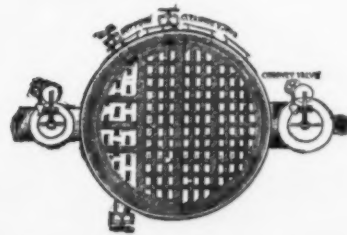
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Modern Improvements, wherein the output of  
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Our Blast Engines, Hoisting Engines, &c.,  
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Preferred by Jobbers.

Packed three dozen in a case.



Dealers will Buy No Others  
AFTER ONE TRIAL.  
Finest Go ds. Smoothest Castings.

WITH NICKEL PLATED HANDLE.  
The Easiest Selling Damper. Most Attractive to Customers.

Insist upon your Jobber sending you this Damper only.

| PRICE LIST PER DOZEN.   |                |
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| 4, 4 1/2 and 5 in. .... | \$1.25 per doz |
| 5 1/2 in. ....          | 1.38 "         |
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SOLE MANUFACTURERS,  
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Most reliable &amp; cheapest in market.

Boiler Feeder.

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For Exhaust Steam Pipes.

Utilize the water of Ex-

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Roofs by keeping them

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For Heating Apparatus, Dry

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All the above sent on trial and satisfaction guaranteed. Sold by the trade generally.

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For Heating Apparatus, Dry  
Rooms, Breweries, Factories,  
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Pipes leading to Steam Pumps  
in Mines, Canning Houses, etc.

Pat. April 16th, 1878.

Pat. April 16th, 1878.



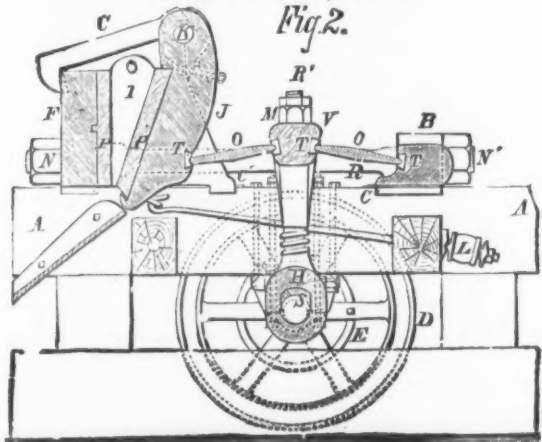
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| Sheep Shears.                          |     |
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The most economical and reliable Crusher in use. Superior in all respects to our old style Blake Crushers, and rapidly superseding them and all imitations. For railway ballast, Macadam road making, and crushing of ores of all kinds it has no competitor.

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Stubs' Files, Tools and Steel, Grobet Swiss Files,

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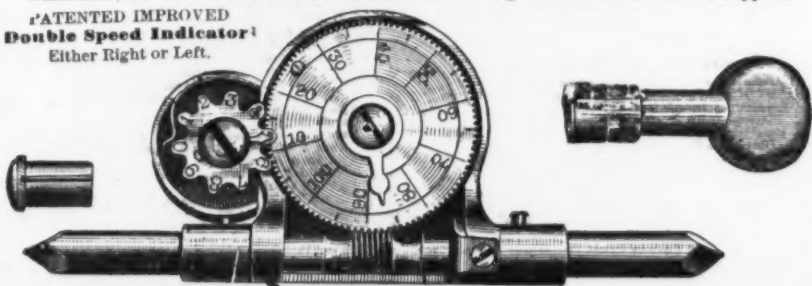
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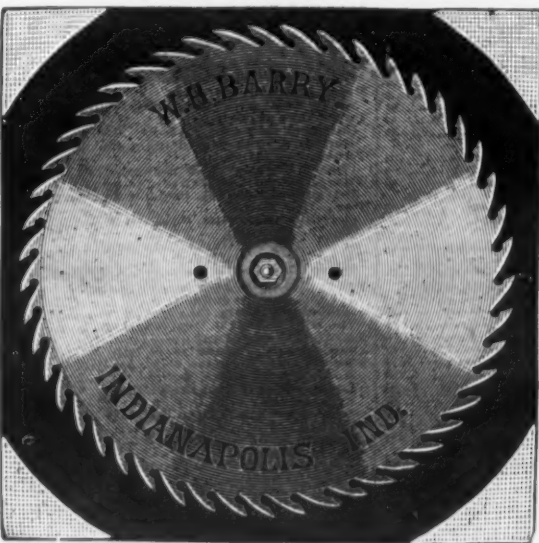
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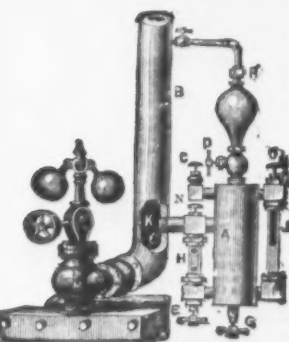
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ALL WORK FULLY  
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SELF-FASTENING BY STEPPING ON THE SKATE.

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**ROOFING**

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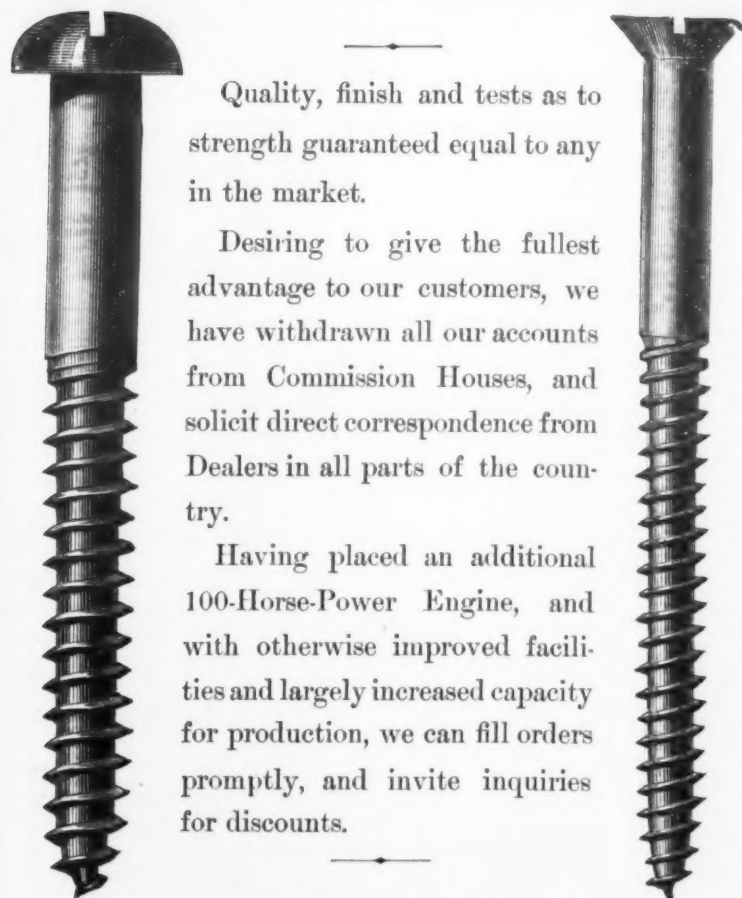
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## IRON AND BRASS WOOD SCREWS

OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.



Quality, finish and tests as to strength guaranteed equal to any in the market.

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Elegantly Made.  
**STRONG.**

HIGHLY POLISHED.  
Hinged Tops and Bottoms.  
Removable Globes.

Will Stand any Draft  
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Free from Smoke.

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**Buckeye Lantern Co.**  
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**CAST STEEL RAKES, COKE FORKS AND GAR-  
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AND ALL KINDS OF  
FARMING TOOL HANDLES.**

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Strength,  
Durability,  
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The DEXTER SPRING is the most perfect Carriage Spring ever invented. Wherever it is known it is rapidly superseding all others for pleasure vehicles. It is especially recommended for use on the rough roads of new countries, as its peculiar construction relieves the strain on the vehicle and shock to the passenger, while the high grade of material used reduces the probability of breakage to a minimum.

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**Wrought Iron Butts, Hinges**  
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**DOOR BOLTS,**  
Plain, Japanned, Bronzed and Plated

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**PATENT COMBINATION WRENCH.**

These Wrenches are made from the best of Wrought Iron, with Steel Head and Jaw, case-hardened throughout, and not only combine all of the superior qualities of our Cylinder or Gas Pipe Wrenches, but also all requisite Combinations of a regular Nut Wrench, thus making a combination which has no equal.

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**PRENTISS' PAT. VISES,**  
Adjustable Jaw.  
Stationary or Pat. Swivel Bottoms.  
ADAPTED TO ALL KINDS OF VISE WORK. ALSO  
"PEERLESS" SWIVEL PIPE GRIP,  
FITS ANY VISE. SOLD BY THE TRADE.  
**PRENTISS VISE CO.,**  
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This Tool possesses all the advantages of the larger size "Eclipse" Machine, and is so similar in its general construction that the description of that tool will serve for the "Junior" also. It meets the requirements of those who have use for a Screwing Machine light enough to be readily carried about, sufficiently powerful in its gearing (15 to 1) to work easily, and strong enough to bear rough usage. All of these points, with the very important one of MODERATE COST, are to be found in the "Junior" Eclipse Machine.

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We offer it, as also the large size "Eclipse" (cutting pipes 2 1/2 to 4 inch), with the understanding that if not found satisfactory after a fair trial it may be returned to us within thirty days and the purchase money will be refunded.

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**PRICE, Complete with Dies 1-4 to 2 inches, \$60.**

**Post's Waterproof Belt Oil and Leather Preservative,**  
FOR WET AND DRY LEATHER BELTING.

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Registered in the U. S. and Great Britain.

Leather dressed with this oil will not crack or rot, as heat, cold, water or gas has no effect on it. It will spread one-third further and last much longer than any oil for the same purpose. It never turns rancid; will keep in any climate. Belts may be run in water at one end and a hot room at the other, and still be soft, dry and pliable. Warranted not to start glue lumps or gum on belts or pulleys, and to keep the surface perfectly smooth. Beware of imitations sold at a cheaper price, the color of which is well calculated to deceive.

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Also Flange Pipe, for Steam or Water, of all sizes used. Special Castings, such as Branches, Bends, Reducers, Sleeves, &c. Stop Valves, Fire Hydrants, Retorts, Lamp Posts, &c.

**The Improved Canada Turbine Water Wheel.**  
MACHINERY AND CASTINGS FOR  
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**Henderson's Patent Gas Furnace,**  
Realizes Perfect Utilization of Coal as Fuel,  
PRODUCES INGOT IRON FREE OF CARBON and  
INGOT STEEL OF ALL GRADES OF CARBON,  
From every kind of Pig Iron or Pig and Wrought Scrap Iron.  
Apply to **JAMES HENDERSON,**  
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RINGS and HOLDER.  
Only double ring ever invented. The only Ring that will effectively keep Hogs from rooting. No sharp points in the nose.

**EAGLE BILL CORN HUSKER**  
Is the best Husker in the market. Farmers say it is the best. Use no other.

**BROWN'S HOG AND PIG RINGER and RINGS.**  
Only single Ring in the market that closes on the outside of the nose. No sharp points in the nose to keep it sore.

Rings 75c. Rings, 50c. and 10c. Holders, 75c. Huskers, 15c.  
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**Simple, Useful & Durable.**

Saves 75 per cent. in time and labor over any other method.

This is the only perfect Glass and Window Cleaner yet devised. It has

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One an elastic cleaning edge, the other a yielding cushion or support. Has hollow iron handles to attach to pole.

We own all the Patents.

**RUBBER SQUEEGES OR FLOOR SCRUBBERS.**

We are now manufacturing a full line of sizes of these scrubbers, and will be pleased to furnish the very lowest prices on application.

SIZES: 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18 INCHES.

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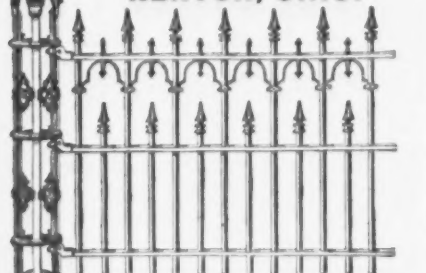
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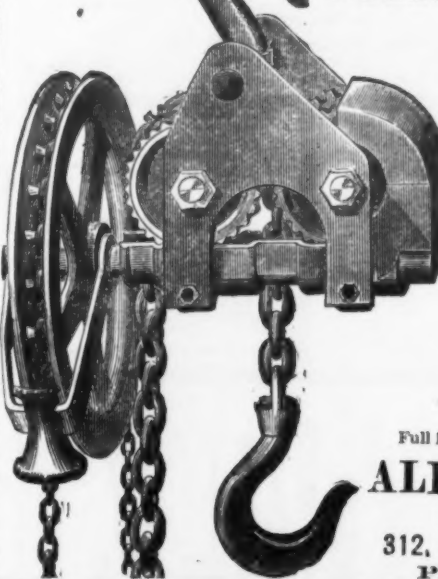
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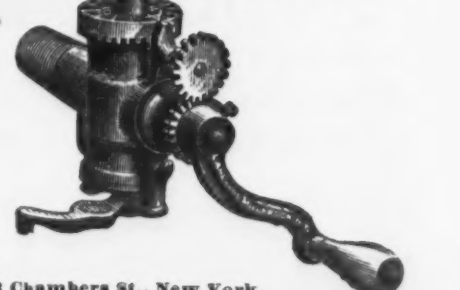
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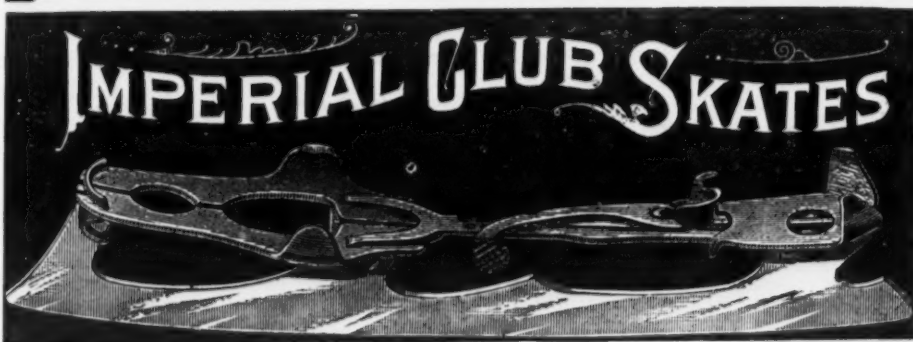
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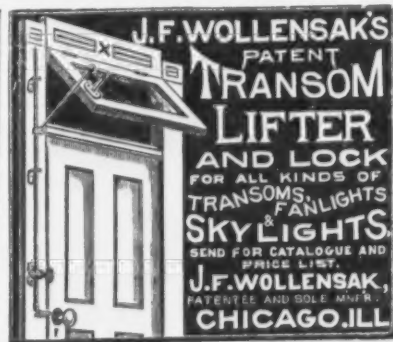
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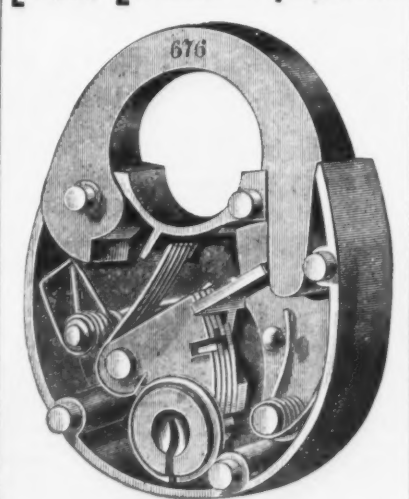
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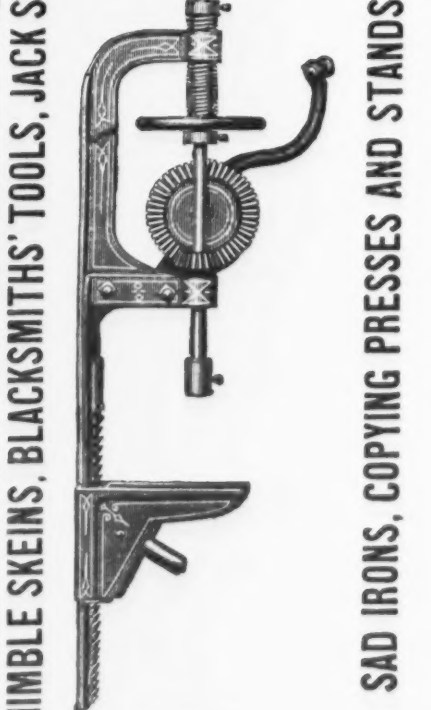
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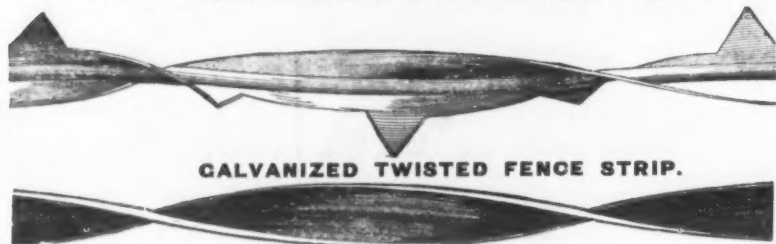
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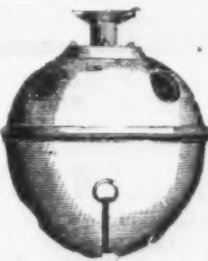
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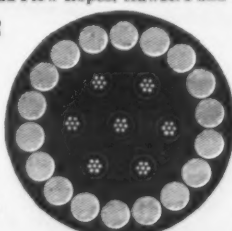
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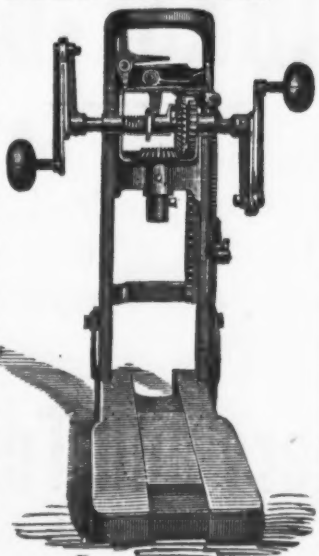


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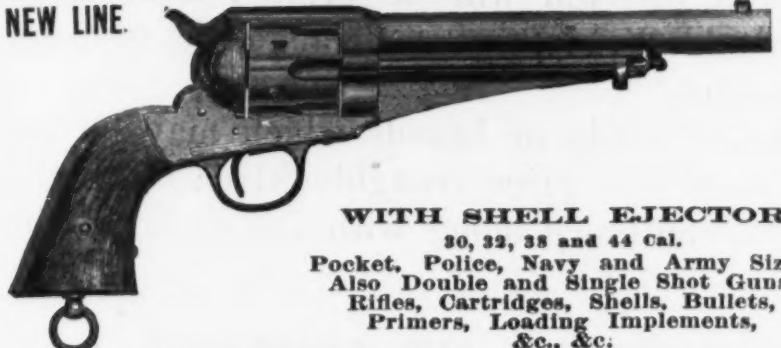
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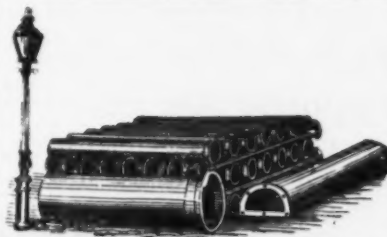
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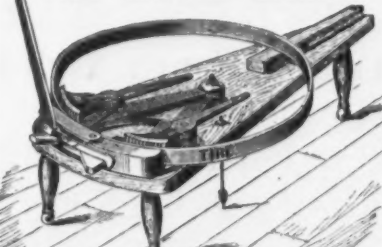


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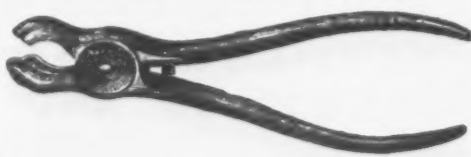
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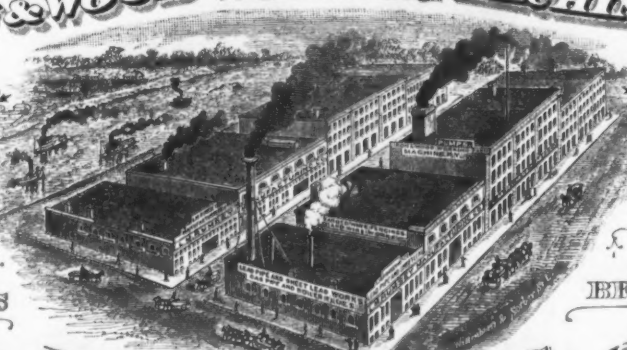
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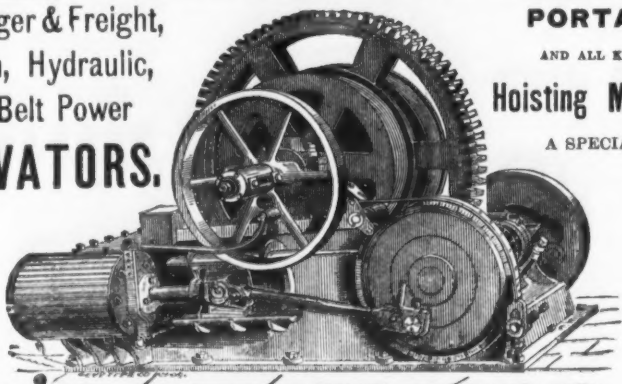
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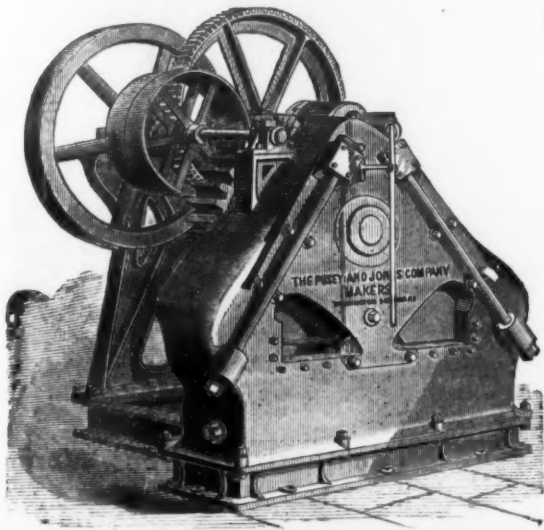
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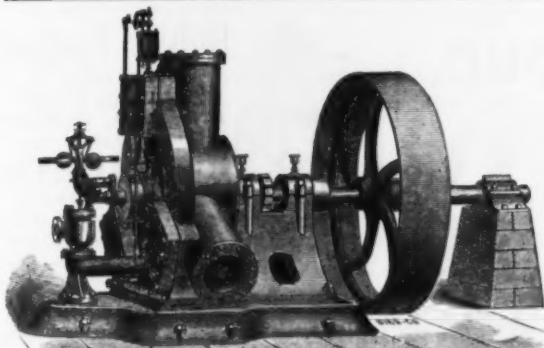
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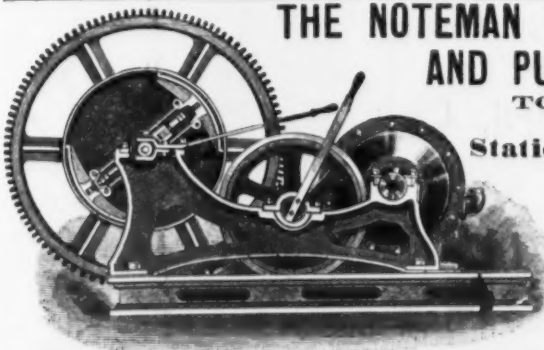
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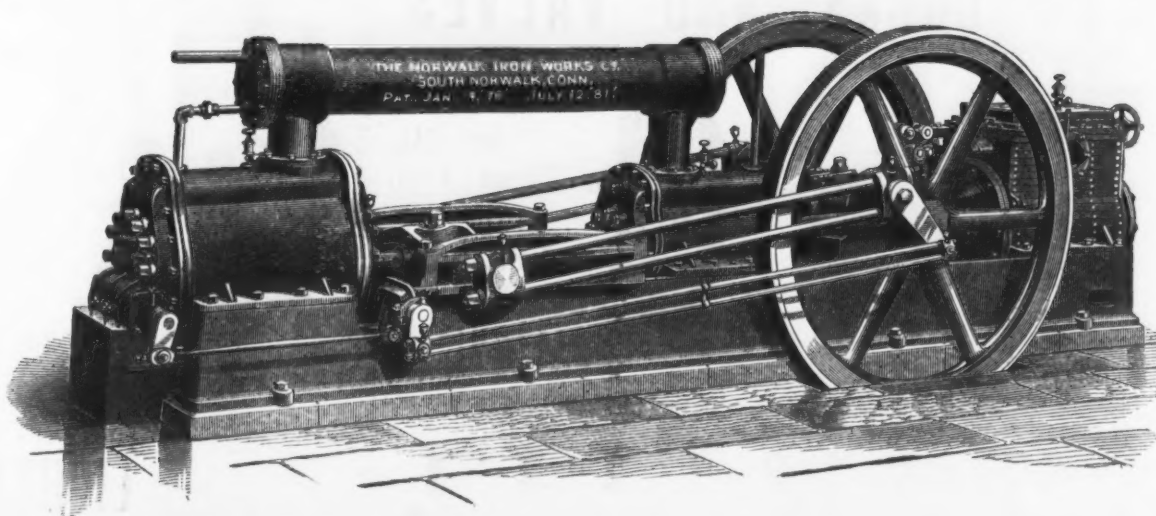
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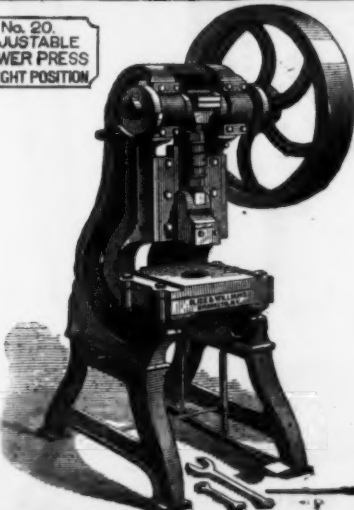


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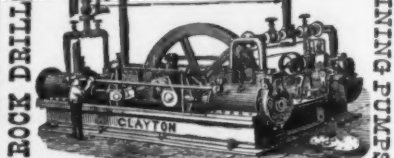
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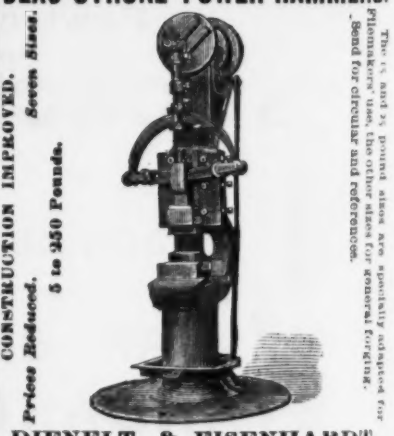


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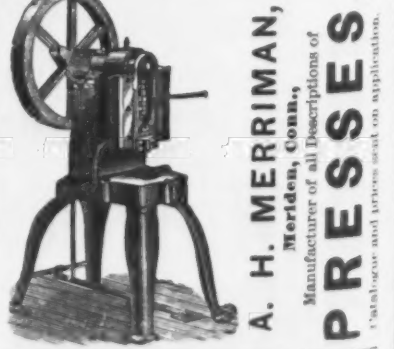
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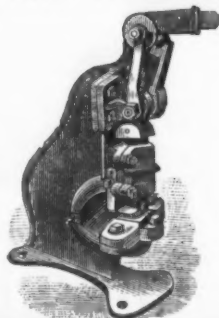


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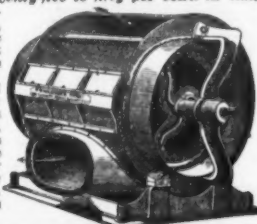
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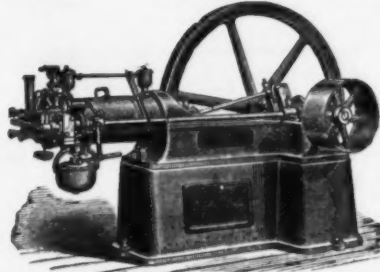
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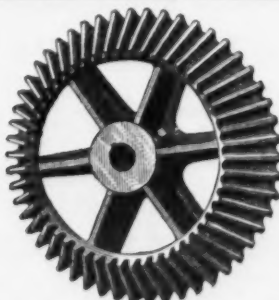
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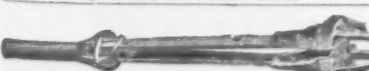


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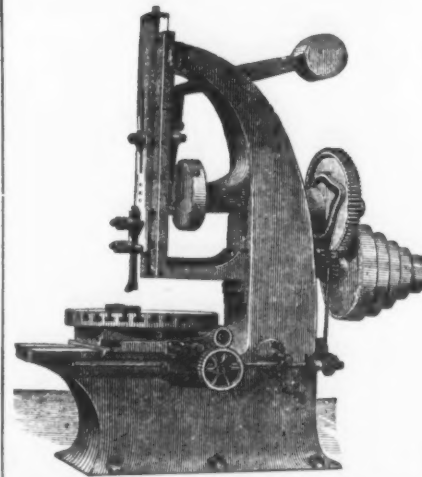
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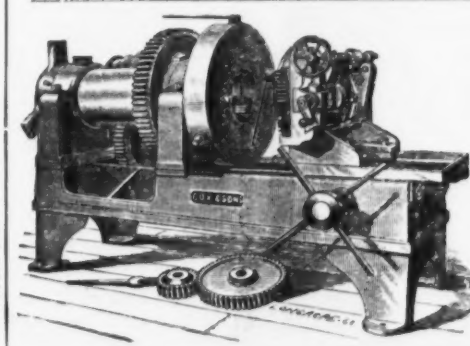
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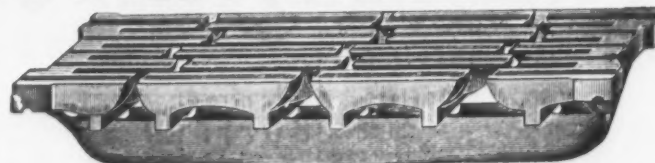
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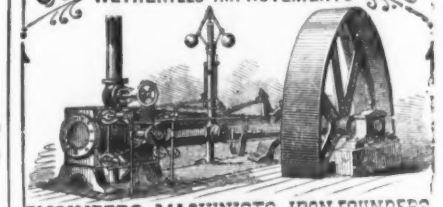
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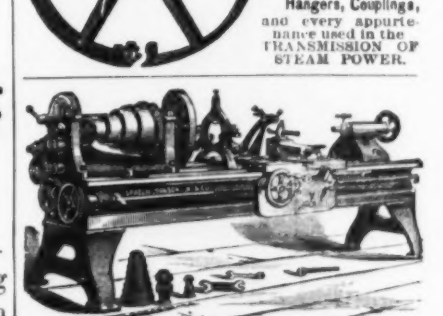
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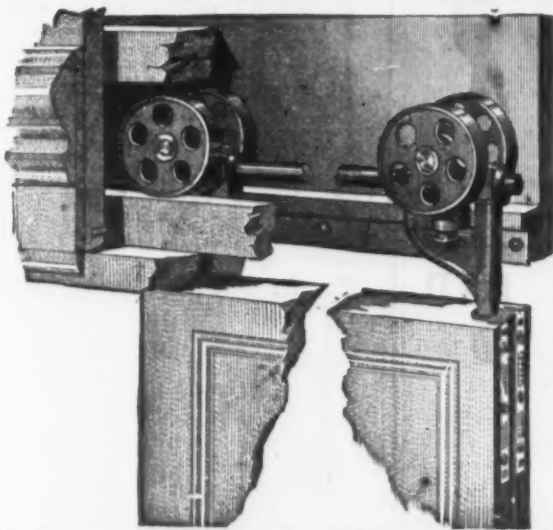
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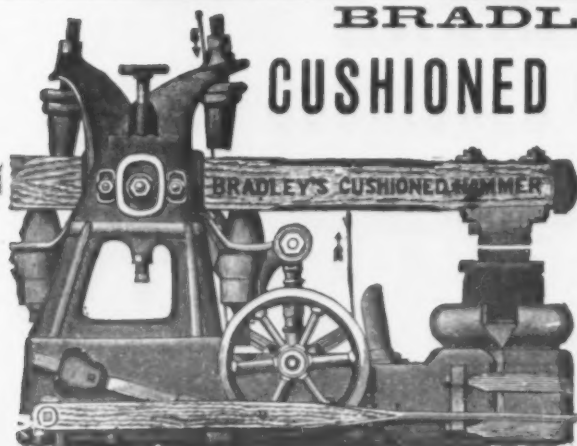
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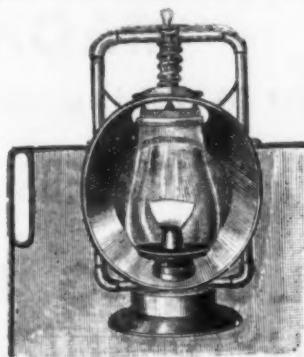
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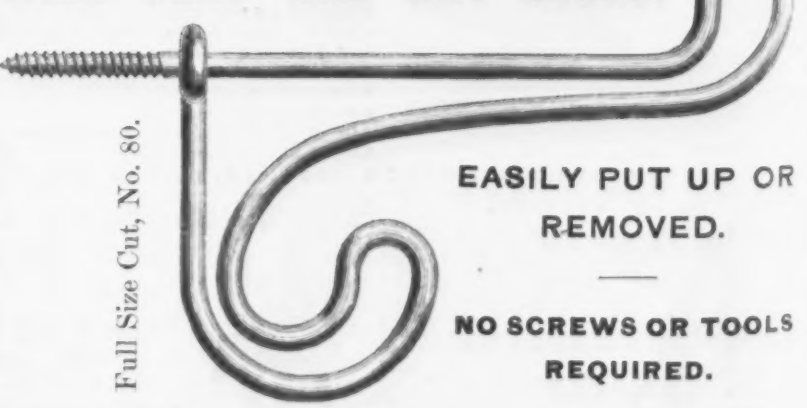
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